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HART'S ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

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G R A M M A R

OF THE

ENGLISH LANGUAGE

BY JOHN S. HART, LL.D.,

LETS. PRINCIPAL OF THE PHILADELPHIA HIGH SCHOOL; A MEMBER OF THE AMERICAN
PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY; AUTHOR OF CLASS BOOK OF POETRY, CLASS BOOK
OF PROSE, AN EDITION OF THE CONSTITUTION OF THE
UNITED STATES, &c., &c.

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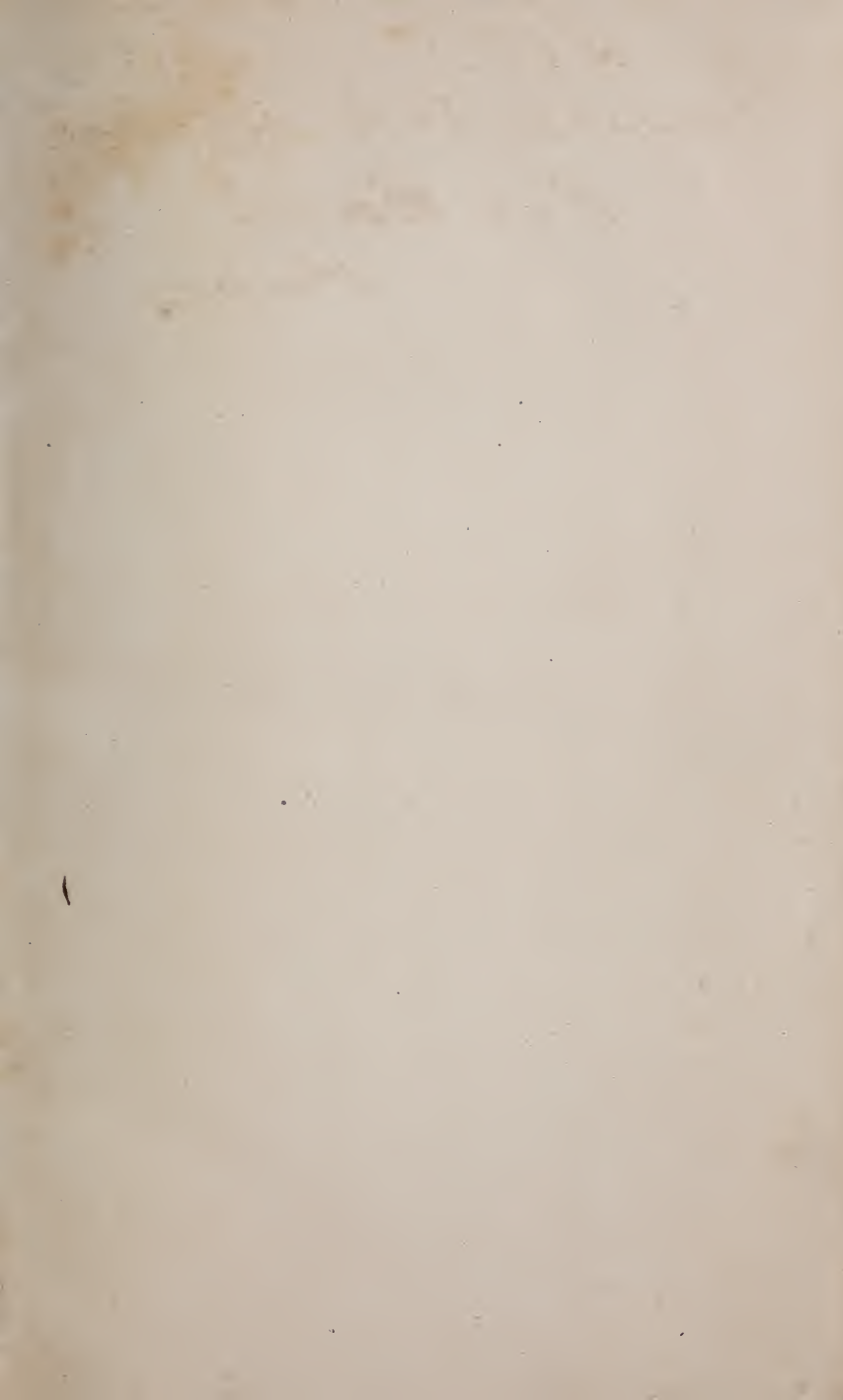
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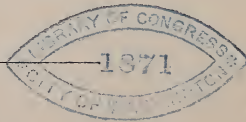
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39
BY JOHN S. ^{Seely}HART, LL.D.,

LATE PRINCIPAL OF THE PHILADELPHIA HIGH SCHOOL; A MEMBER OF THE AMERICAN
PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY; AUTHOR OF CLASS BOOK OF POETRY, CLASS BOOK
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CHAMBER OF THE CONTROLLERS OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS,
FIRST SCHOOL DISTRICT OF PENNSYLVANIA.

Philadelphia, May 6th, 1862.

At a meeting of the Controllers of Public Schools, held at their Chamber, on Tuesday, June 10th, 1845, the following Resolution was adopted:—

Resolved, That HART'S ENGLISH GRAMMAR be introduced as a class book into the Grammar Schools of the District.

From the Minutes,

ROBERT J. HEMPHILL,

Secretary.

Entered according to the Act of Congress, in the year 1862, by

E. H. BUTLER,

In the Office of the Clerk of the District Court of the United States in and for the Eastern District of Pennsylvania.

MEARS & DUSENBERY,
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PREFACE.

GRAMMAR is like Arithmetic. It is based on scientific principles, and for advanced students it deals mainly with theoretical and abstract discussions. But for beginners, it requires positive rules and definitions, and above all things, clear and copious examples. Examples are to the youthful student of Grammar what the sums are in Arithmetic. Without them, rules and definitions are apt to be a mere form of words. It is the examples and the practical exercises which give real life to the study for young minds.

In this new and revised edition of my Grammar, besides availing myself of whatever new light the last seventeen years have thrown upon the principles of the science, I have given much greater prominence than before to the practical exercises. The examples, both those for illustration and those for practice; are more numerous than in the original edition; and they are in each case brought into immediate connection with the rule or the definition which they are intended to illustrate. A child of ordinary capacity can hardly go through these exercises without becoming thoroughly familiar with the principles which they exemplify.

In a Grammar intended mainly as a school-book, all parade of learning is eminently out of place. The matured fruits of study should appear, but not its mere foliage. What the beginner requires is definite practical results, not the methods by which the author has reached them. Yet Grammar is, of all subjects, the one on which it is neither safe nor modest to dogmatize. The man must be strangely ignorant of the whole

subject, who can assume to be an infallible authority in language. No one knows so thoroughly, as he who has studied most profoundly, that on many points the science of Grammar is indeterminate, and that there may be fair grounds for differences of opinion among authors. While, on such points, an author will give for the use of beginners plain, practical rules, he cannot but desire occasionally to state the different views entertained by others, and the reasons which have led to the adoption of his own method. Some few discussions of disputed points, therefore, have necessarily found their way into this work. But, instead of being printed, as before, in immediate connection with the text, where they were found to distract the attention of the learner, they are all now placed by themselves in an Appendix. Such discussions are of course intended mainly for teachers, and for such a purpose are all the more available for being separated from the text and brought together in one body.

Besides this book, which is complete in itself, I have issued another, which is introductory to it, called PART FIRST. The Rules and Definitions in that book, so far as they are given, are the same as in this. But it contains only a small portion of the matter, and that the most elementary part, being intended for the use of those who begin the study while quite young. The exercises are entirely distinct from those in this book, and it has besides numerous explanations which are not deemed necessary here. Those who begin by studying Part First, will have nothing to unlearn in entering upon the study of the main work, and will find their progress in it much facilitated. At the same time, this main work is complete in itself, especially for those who do not begin the study of Grammar until they have arrived at some maturity of judgment, or until they have made some considerable progress in their other studies.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

1. GRAMMAR is the science which treats of Language.

2. Grammar is divided into four parts; namely, ORTHOGRAPHY, ETYMOLOGY, SYNTAX, and PROSODY.

3. Orthography treats of LETTERS, Etymology of WORDS, Syntax of SENTENCES, and Prosody of VERSIFICATION.

FIRST PART.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

4. The first part of Grammar is called ORTHOGRAPHY.

5. Orthography treats of LETTERS.

NOTE.—The treatment of the Points and of the other characters used in writing, embracing the rules of Punctuation, belongs

properly to Orthography. But the most important of these rules cannot be understood by the pupil until he is familiar with the general principles of Grammar, particularly of Syntax. For convenience in teaching, therefore, this part of Orthography is treated of under the head of Prosody, although at some expense of logical accuracy.

6. Letters are written characters or signs used to represent certain sounds of the human voice.

7. The letters of any Language are called its ALPHABET.

8. The English Alphabet contains twenty-six letters.

DIVISIONS OF THE LETTERS.

9. Letters are divided into VOWELS and CONSONANTS. Consonants are subdivided into MUTES and SEMI-VOWELS.

10. A VOWEL makes a perfect sound of itself.

11. A CONSONANT cannot be fully sounded unless in connexion with a vowel.

NOTE 1.—A MUTE is the mere commencement or termination of the sound, on opening or closing the organs; a SEMI-VOWEL is a partial interruption or modification of the sound, caused by changing the position of the organs during utterance; and a VOWEL is the very sound itself prolonged without change. (For a fuller explanation, see Appendix 1.)

NOTE 2.—The nature of the mute or semi-vowel in each case depends upon the particular part of the mouth or throat used to intercept the current of sound. Thus, if the sound is intercepted chiefly by the *teeth*, the letter is called a *dental*, &c. The nature of the vowel in like manner depends upon the *shape* of the aperture while the sound is coming out. Thus, when the aperture is *circular*, or nearly so, we form the sound of *o*, &c.

Vowels.

12. The VOWELS are *a, e, i, o, u*, and sometimes *w* and *y*. All the other letters are CONSONANTS.

NOTE.—*W* and *y* are consonants when they begin a word or syllable.

13. A DIPHTHONG is the union of two vowels in one sound.

14. A Proper diphthong is one in which both the vowels are sounded; as, *ou* in *loud*. An Improper diphthong is one in which only one vowel is sounded; as, *oa* in *boat*.

15. The Proper diphthongs are only two in number; namely, *oi, oâ*.

16. The Improper diphthongs are numerous, and need not be repeated. Strictly speaking, they are not diphthongs, but merely single vowel sounds preceded or followed by other vowels that are not sounded.

17. A TRIPHTHONG is the union of three vowels in one sound; as, *ieu* in *adieu*.

18. The triphthongs are only three in number, *eau, ieu, iew*. Like the improper diphthongs, they contain only one vowel sound.

NOTE.—*U* after *q* is never counted as part of a diphthong, or triphthong.

Consonants.

19. The Consonants are divided into MUTES and SEMI-VOWELS.

20. The Mutes and Semi-vowels may be distinguished both by the name and the sound.

First, in naming the mutes, the accompanying vowel generally follows; as, *pe, be*; in naming the semi-vowels, the accompanying vowel precedes; as, *ef, el*.

Secondly, in sounding the mutes, the voice is stopped short, as in *ap*; in sounding the semi-vowels, the voice may be prolonged, as in *al*.

21. The mutes are *p, b, t, d, k, q*, and *c* and *g* hard.

22. The semi-vowels are *f, h, j, l, m, n, r, s, v, x, z*; *c* and *g* soft; and *w* and *y* when they are not vowels.

23. Four of the semi-vowels, *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, are also called LIQUIDS.

24. The consonants are sometimes divided according to the part of the vocal organs by which they are formed. The principal divisions of this sort are *labials*, *dentals*, *palatals*, *gutturals*, *nasals*, and *linguals*.

25. Labials are formed chiefly by the *lips*, Dentals by the *teeth*, Palatals by the *palate*, Gutturals by the *throat*, Nasals by the *nose*, and Linguals by the *tongue*.

26. The Labials are *p*, *b*, *f*, *v*; the Dentals *t*, *d*, *s*, *z*; the Palatals *g* soft and *j*; the Gutturals *k*, *q*, and *c* and *g* hard; the Nasals *m* and *n*; and the Linguals *l* and *r*.

SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

NOTE.—The sounds of the letters can be learned by the ear only. The same letter often has several sounds. These are designated by the terms *long*, *short*, *broad*, *flat*, *hard*, *soft*, *rough*, *smooth*, &c.

Sounds of the Vowels.

27. A has five sounds of its own, as in *fate*, *fare*, *far*, *fall*, *fat*.

28. E has two sounds of its own, as in *mete*, *met*; also the sound of *a* as in *deign*; of *i*, as in *England*; and of *o*, as in *rev*.

29. I has two sounds of its own, as in *pine*, *pin*; also the sound of *e* as in *machine*; of *u*, as in *flirt*; and of *y*, as in *filial*.

30. O has four sounds of its own, as in *no*, *not*, *nor*, *move*; also the sound of *u*, as in *son*.

31. U has three sounds of its own, as in *tube*, *tub*, *full*; also the sound of *e*, as in *bury*; of *i*, as in *busy*; and of *w*, as in *languid*.

Sounds of the Diphthongs.

32. OI and OU are always sounded as in *loin*, *loud*.

33. OY and OW are sounded like *oi* and *ou*. (See Appendix 2.)

Sounds of the Consonants.

34. B, H, L, M, V, and Y, have each a sound of their own, and are sometimes silent.

35. C has the sound of *k*, as in *came*; of *s*, as in *centre*; of *sh*, as in *social*; of *z*, as in *suffice*; and is sometimes silent, as in *victuals*.

36. C is sounded hard like *k* before *a*, *o*, *u*, as in *cake*, *colt*, *cup*; soft like *s* before *e*, *i*, *y*, as in *cent*, *cider*, *cypress*.

37. C before *e*, *i*, and *y*, followed by another vowel, has the sound of *sh*, as in *ocean*.

38. C before a consonant or at the end of a syllable, is always sounded hard; as in *crawl*, *rubric*.

39. CH has the sound of *tsh* in words purely English, as in *chin*; of *sh* in words derived from the French, as in *chaise*; and of *k* in words derived from the Hebrew, Greek, or other ancient languages, as in *chorus*, *Chaldee*.

40. In *arch* and its compounds, *ch* before a consonant is always sounded like *tsh*, as in *archbishop*; but before a vowel it is sounded sometimes like *tsh*, and sometimes like *k*, as in *arch-enemy*, *archangel*.

41. D has its own sound, as in *drum*; the sound of *j*, as in *soldier*; and sometimes, at the end of words, that of *t*, as in *tripped*.

42. F has always its own sound, as in *from*; except in *of*, where it has the sound of *v*.

43. G has its own sound, which is hard; the sound of *j*, which is soft; and is silent before *n*, as in *gnaw*.

44. G is sounded hard before *a*, *o*, *u*, as in *gave*, *go*, *gun*; but before *e*, *i*, *y*, it is sometimes hard and sometimes soft, as in *beget*, *begin*, *boggy*; *gem*, *giant*, *gypsum*.

45. G before a consonant, or at the end of a syllable, is always sounded hard.

46. NG has a sound peculiar to itself, as in *ring*.

47. GH has the sound of *f*, as in *tough*; of *g* hard, as in *burgh*; or is silent, as in *plough*.

48. J has always its own sound, as in *joy*; except in *hallelujah*, where it has the sound of *y*.

49. K has but one sound, as in *keep*; it is never sounded before *n*, as in *knife*; and never doubled, except in *Habakkuk*.

50. N has its own sound, as in *man*; and the sound of *ng*, as in *bank*.

51. P has always its own sound, as in *pill*; except in *cup-board*, when it is sounded like *b*.

52. PH has the sound of *f*, as in *philosophy*; of *v*, as in *Stephen*; or is silent, as in *apophthegm*.

53. Q has the sound of *k*, and is always followed by *u*, as in *quick*.

54. R has a rough sound, as in *rock*; and a soft sound, as in *bark*.

55. S has its own sound, as in *sister*; the sound of *z*, as in *rosy*; of *sh*, as in *sugar*; of *zh*, as in *pleasure*; and is silent, as in *island*.

56. SC is sounded hard like *sk* before *a*, *o*, *u*, as in *scale*, *scold*, *scuttle*; and soft like *s* before *e*, *i*, *y*, as in *sceptre*, *science*, *scythe*.

57. SC also has the sound of *sh*, as in *conscious*.

58. T has its own sound, as in *take*; the sound of *sh*, as in *patient*; of *tsh*, as in *fustian*; and is often silent, as in *bustle*.

59. TH has two sounds of its own, as in *thin*, *this*. It has also the simple sound of *t*, as in *Thomas*.

60. W has the sound of *oo*, as in *water*; and is often silent, as in *answer*.

61. WH has the sound of *hw*, as in *whale* (sounded as if written *hwale*).

62. X has the sound of *z*, as in *Xenophon*; the sound of *ks*, as in *exercise*; and of *gz*, as in *exist*.

63. Z has its own sound, as in *zeal*; the sound of *zh*, as in *azure*; and is silent, as in *rendezvous*.

NOTE.—For more particular information respecting the sounds of the letters, the beginner should consult a Spelling Book, and the more advanced student his Dictionary.

SPELLING.

64. Spelling is putting letters together correctly, so as to form syllables and words.

65. A word is a number of letters used together to represent some idea.

NOTE.—A few words consist of only one letter each.

66. A syllable is so much of a word as can be pronounced by one impulse of the voice, as *con* in *contain*.

67. A word of one syllable is called a MONOSYLLABLE; of two, a DISSYLLABLE; of three, a TRISYLLABLE; of more than three, a POLYSYLLABLE.

RULES FOR SPELLING.

I. Words ending in *y*.

68. RULE.—Words ending in *y* preceded by a consonant, change *y* into *i* on taking an additional syllable; as, *fancy*, *fanc-i-ful* (not *fanc-y-ful*).

NOTE.—Words ending in *y* preceded by a vowel, retain the *y* on taking an additional syllable; as, *joy*, *joyful*. Except *daily* (from *day*); *laid*, *lain* (from *lay*); *paid* (from *pay*); *saith*, *said* (from *say*); and their compounds, *mis-laid*, *unpaid*, *pre-paid*, &c.

EXCEPTION 1.—The *y* is sometimes changed into *e*, when the additional syllable is *ous*; as, *beaut-y*, *beaut-e-ous*.

EXCEPTION 2.—The *y* is not changed at all when the additional syllable begins with *i*; as, *tarry*, *tarr-y-ing* (not *tarr-i-ing*).

EXERCISE.—Spell the words formed by adding *ful* to *mercy*, *plenty*; by adding *es* and *ing* to *cry*, *pry*, *apply*; by adding *er* and *est* to *merry*, *sorry*.

Form the following compounds, and give the rule for each change: *like-ly-hood*, *handy-craft*, *quarry-ed*, *journey-ed*, *beauty-ful*, *glory-ous*, *pity-ous*, *pity-ful*, *melody-ous*, *gay-ety*.

II. Words ending in silent *e*.

69. RULE.—Words ending in silent *e*, drop *e* on taking an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *care*, *caring* (not *car-e-ing*).

NOTE.—Words ending in silent *e* retain the *e* on taking an additional syllable beginning with a consonant; as, *care*, *careful*. Except *duly*, *truly*, *awful*, *wisdom*, *nursling*, *judgment*, *abridgment*, *acknowledgment*, *lodgment*, *argument*.

EXCEPTION 1.—Words ending in *ce* and *ge*, retain the *e* before terminations beginning with *a*, *o*, *u*; as, *change*, *changeable*. This is to preserve the soft sound of *c* and *g*.

EXCEPTION 2.—Words ending in *ie*, after dropping the *e*, change the *i* into *y* on adding *ing*; as, *die*, *dy-ing*; *untie*, *unty-ing*. This is to prevent the doubling of the *i* (*di-ing*, *unti-ing*).

EXCEPTION 3.—*Dye* (to color), *hoe*, and *shoe* likewise do not drop the *e* on adding *ing*; as, *dyeing*, *hoeing*, *shoeing*.

EXCEPTION 4.—*Singe*, *swinge*, and *tinge* do not drop *e* on adding *ing*; as, *singeing*, *swingeing*, *tingeing*. This is to distinguish them from the corresponding forms of *sing*, *swing*, and *ting*.

EXERCISE.—Spell the words formed by adding *ing* to *bite*, *force*, *revive*; by adding *able* to *admire*, *adore*, *deplore*.

Form the following compounds, and give the rule for each change: *ripe-en*, *smoke-ing*, *lie-ing*, *sphere-ical*, *dispute-ant*, *tire-some*, *tie-ing*, *tie-ed*, *pave-ment*, *serve-ice-able*, *defense-ible*, *cure-able*, *marriage-able*, *trace-ing*, *trace-able*, *fame-ous*, *courage-ous*, *repulse-ive-ness*.

III. Words ending in *ll*.

70. RULE.—Words ending in *ll* drop one *l* on taking an additional syllable beginning with a consonant; as, *full*, *ful-ness*; also sometimes on prefixing another word or syllable; as, *full*, *hand-ful*; *still*, *dis-till*.

NOTE.—Words ending in any other double letter are spelt in composition in the same manner as when alone; as, *stiff*, *stiffly*.

EXERCISE.—Spell the words formed by adding to *all* the words *though*, *together*; by combining *with* and *all*; *arm* and *full*.

Form the following compounds, and give the rule for each change: *full-fill*, *tall-er*, *buzz-ing*, *all-ways*, *well-come*, *stiff-ness*, *use-full*, *all-most*.

IV. Doubling the final Consonant.

71. RULE.—Monosyllables, and words accented on the last syllable, ending with a single consonant, preceded by a single vowel, double that consonant on taking an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *wit*, *witty*; *begin*, *beginning*.

NOTE.—If the accent is not on the last syllable, or if a diphthong precedes, the final consonant is not doubled on taking an additional syllable; as, *offer*, *offering*; *toil*, *toiling*.

EXCEPTION.—Some words ending in *l*, though *not* accented on the last syllable, double the *l* on taking an additional syllable beginning with a vowel; as, *travel*, *travelling*, *traveler*, &c.

NOTE.—This point is in dispute. Some authors double the *l*, as above, others do not, but spell the foregoing words *travel*, *traveler*, *traveling*. (See Appendix 3.)

EXERCISE.—Spell the words formed by adding *ing* and *ed* to *remit*, *impel*; *ist* to *drug*, *machine*, *novel*, *natural*; *er* to *rebel*; *ed* to *fulfil*, *rub*, *fail*, *refer*; *ing* to *squat*, *sail*, *gallop*, *hum*; *ant* to *assist*; *ent* to *excel*; *ine* to *adamant*; *ate* to *alien*, *origin*; *en* to *red*, *moist*, *fright*; *ar* to *consul*; *er* to *propel*; *ous* to *mountain*; *y* to *mud*, *meal*, *sleep*; *ee* to *commit*, *absent*, *patent*; *ard* to *slug*, *drunk*. N. B.—In forming each combination, give the Rule applicable to it.

V. The use of *ei* and *ie*.

RULE.—In such words as *deceive*, *believe*, and their compounds, *ei* is used if the letter *c* precedes; as, *deceive*, *deceiving*, *deceit*, *deceitful*, &c. But if any other letter precedes, *ie* is used; as, *believe* *believing*, *belief*, &c. Except *counterfeit*.

EXERCISE.—Correct the mistakes, if any, in the following words: *retreive*, *perceive*, *acheive*, *repreive*, *concieve*, *seive*, *conciét*.

SECOND PART.

ETYMOLOGY.

72. The second part of Grammar is called ETYMOLOGY.

73. Etymology treats of WORDS.

74. Words are considered in regard to their Classification, Inflection, and Derivation.

75. By the *Classification* of words is meant the arrangement of them into different classes, according to their signification and use.

76. By the *Inflection* of words is meant the change of form which they undergo.

77. By the *Derivation* of words is meant tracing them to their original form and meaning.

PARTS OF SPEECH.

78. The different classes of words are called PARTS of SPEECH.

79. The Parts of Speech in English are nine; namely, the ARTICLE, NOUN, ADJECTIVE, PRONOUN, VERB, ADVERB, CONJUNCTION, PREPOSITION, and INTERJECTION.

Definitions of the Parts of Speech.

An ARTICLE is a word placed before a noun to show whether the noun is used in a definite, or in an indefinite sense.

A NOUN is the name of any person, place, or thing.

An ADJECTIVE is a word used to qualify a noun.

A PRONOUN is a word used instead of a noun.

A VERB is a word used to assert or affirm.

An ADVERB is a word used to qualify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

A CONJUNCTION is a word used to connect words and sentences.

A PREPOSITION is a word placed before a noun to show its relation to some other word.

An INTERJECTION is a word used in making a sudden exclamation.

ARTICLES.

80. An ARTICLE is a word placed before a noun to show whether the noun is used in a definite, or in an indefinite sense.

81. The Articles are *a* and *the*.

82. *A* is the INDEFINITE Article, *the* is the DEFINITE Article.

83. The Article *a* becomes *an* before a vowel sound; as, *a man*, *an old man*, *an honest man*.

NOTE.—In determining whether to use *a*, or to use *an*, we should notice not the letter, but the real sound with which the next word begins. Sometimes a vowel at the beginning of a word has the sound of a consonant. Thus *o* in *one* is sounded as if the word began with *w*; *u* in *unit* is sounded as if the word began with *y*, &c. In such cases the article should be *a*. On the other hand, the consonant *h* at the beginning of a word is sometimes not sounded, as in *honest* (pronounced *onest*). In that case, the article should be *an*. The following words, and words derived from them, are some of those which begin with silent *h*; *honor*, *honest*, *hour*, *heir*, *herb*, *humor*, *humble*, *hostler*, &c.

84. *A* or *an* means one, and is used only before the singular number; as, *a man*, *an apple*.

85. *The* is used before both numbers; as, *the man*, *the men*.

NOTE 1.—*A* and *the* may be considered the same as *one* and *that*, only abbreviated in form, and unemphatic in meaning. (See Appendix 4.)

NOTE 2.—Some nouns in the singular without an article before them are taken in the widest sense for a whole species; as, *man*, for mankind. This usage, however, is by no means universal. On the contrary, in many words, the article is used for this very purpose; as, *the horse*, for horses in general.

EXERCISE.—Name the appropriate indefinite article to be used before each of the following words: Ewe, watch, one-eyed man, European, umbrella, use, end, day, opening, engineer.

PARSING EXERCISE.—Parse “*an*” in the sentence “Give me *an apple*.”

MODEL.—“*An*” is the indefinite article, placed before the noun “*apple*,” to show that it is used in an indefinite sense.

Parse each of the articles in the following sentence: The right man in the right place is a rare and happy sight.

NOUNS.

86. A NOUN is the name of any person, place, or thing; as, *boy, school, book.*

NOTE 1.—The word *thing* in the foregoing definition is used in its widest sense, to signify not merely external objects which may be seen and handled, but whatever may be a subject of thought or discourse.

NOTE 2.—Letters and words used technically are to be considered nouns; as, “*C* is sounded hard before *a, o, u, &c.*;” “*lb* means pound.” “*Me* is a pronoun.”

CLASSIFICATION OF NOUNS.

87. Nouns are divided into two classes, PROPER, and COMMON.

88. A PROPER noun is a name given to only one of a class of objects; as, *John, London, Delaware.*

NOTE.—A Proper noun should always begin with a capital letter.

89. A COMMON noun is a name given to any one of a class of objects; as, *boy, city, river.*

EXERCISES.—Which of the following nouns are Proper, and which Common? Which should begin with a capital letter? *remark, austria, empire, country, holland, queen, victoria, illinois, poet, milton.*

Name five Common nouns, and five Proper nouns, besides those in the foregoing list.

90. Common Nouns are further divided into COLLECTIVE, ABSTRACT, VERBAL, and DIMINUTIVE.

91. A COLLECTIVE noun is the name of a collection of objects considered as one; as, *army, crowd.* A Collective noun is also called a noun of Multitude.

92. An **ABSTRACT** noun is one which denotes the name of a quality apart from the substance to which it belongs; as, *sweetness, beauty*. Abstract nouns are derived from adjectives.

93. A **VERBAL** noun is one derived from a verb; as, *reading*. It is also called a **PARTICIPIAL** noun.

94. A **DIMINUTIVE** noun is one derived from another noun, and expressing some object of the same kind but smaller; as, *stream, streamlet; leaf, leaflet; hill, hillock; duck, duckling; goose, gosling*.

EXERCISES.—To what kind or class does each of the following Common nouns belong? islet, spelling, lambkin, hillock, acuteness, loyalty, flock, senate.

Name three Collective nouns; three Abstract nouns; three Verbal nouns; three Diminutive nouns.

ATTRIBUTES OF NOUNS.

95. Nouns have the attributes of Gender, Number, Person, and Case.

A noun has the attribute of Gender from its expressing sex; of Number, from its expressing unity and plurality; of Person, from its expressing the relation of the noun to the speaker; and of Case, from its expressing the relation of the noun to some verb, preposition, or other noun.

GENDER.

96. Gender is the distinction of nouns in regard to **SEX**.

NOTE.—Pronouns also have gender.

97. Nouns have three genders, **MASCULINE**, **FEMININE**, and **NEUTER**.

98. The Masculine denotes objects of **THE MALE SEX**; as, *boy, man*.

99. The Feminine denotes objects of **THE FEMALE SEX**; as, *girl, woman*.

NOTE.—Many nouns in the feminine end in *ess*; as, *poetess*. Some end in *ine*; as, *heroine*.

100. The Neuter denotes ANY THING WITHOUT SEX; as, *book*, *river*.

101. There are three ways of distinguishing sex: 1, by the use of different words, as *bachelor*, *maid*; 2. by difference of termination, as *abbot*, *abbess*; 3. by prefixing or affixing another word, as *he-goat*, *she-goat*; *landlord*, *landlady*.

1. *Sex distinguished by different words.*

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Bachelor	maid	King	queen
Beau	belle	Lad	lass
Boar	sow	Lord	lady
Boy	girl	Male	female
Brother	sister	Man	woman
Buck	doe	Master	miss
Bull	} cow or heifer	Mister or Mr.	Mistress or Mrs.
Bullock		Milter	spawner
Ox		Nephew	neice
Steer		Papa	mamma
Cock	hen		
Colt	filly	Ram	ewe
Dog	bitch	Singer	songstress
Drake	duck	Sir	} madam
Earl	countess	Sire (<i>the king</i>)	
Father	mother	Sire, <i>a horse</i>	dam
Friar	} nun	Sloven	slattern
Monk		Son	daughter
Gander	goose	Stag	hind
Hart	roe	Swain	nymph
Horse	mare	Uncle	aunt
Husband	wife	Wizard	witch.

2. *Sex distinguished by difference of termination.*

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Abbot	abbess	Administrator	administratrix
Actor	actress	Adulterer	adulteress

Ambassador	ambadress	Instructor	instructress
Arbiter	arbitress	Jew	Jewess
Author	authoress	Landgrave	landgravine
Baron	baroness	Lion	lioness
Bridegroom	bride	Marquis	marchioness
Benefactor	benefactress	Mayor	mayoress
Caterer	cateress	Monitor	monitress
Chanter	chantress	Negro	negress
Conductor	conductress	Patron	patroness
Count	countess	Peer	peeress
Czar	czarina	Poet	poetes
Dauphin	dauphiness	Priest	priestess
Deacon	deaconess	Prince	princess
Director	{ directress directrix	Prior	prioress
Don	donna	Prophet	prophetess
Duke	duchess	Protector	protectress
Elector	electress	Shepherd	shepherdess
Emperor	empress	Songster	songstress
Enchanter	enchantress	Sorcerer	sorceress
Executor	executrix	Sultan	{ sultana sultaness
Founder	foundress	Testator	testatrix
Giant	giantess	Tiger	tigress
Governor	governess	Traitor	traitress
Heir	heiress	Tutor	tutoress
Heritor	heritrix	Tyrant	tyranness
Hero	heroine	Viscount	viscountess
Hunter	huntress	Votary	votaress
Host	hostess	Widower	widow.

3. *Sex distinguished by prefixing or affixing another word.*

<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>
Landlord	landlady	Man-servant	maid-servant
Gentleman	gentlewoman	Male-child	female-child.
Archduke	archduchess	Peacock	peahen
Schoolmaster	schoolmistress	Cock-sparrow	hen-sparrow
He-goat	she-goat.		

NOTE 1.—Some nouns denote objects which may be either male or female; as, *bird*, *parent*. These are said to be of the Common gender.

NOTE 2.—Most masculines have no corresponding feminine; as, *baker*, *brewer*, &c. A few feminines have no corresponding masculines; as, *laundress*, *brunette*, *virago*, &c.

NOTE 3.—In some of the words which have both masculine and feminine terminations, the masculinè is ordinarily used to denote both sexes, wherever the office or profession is the idea chiefly intended. When, however, it is the intention of the sentence to designate the sex of the individual spoken of, the change of termination is to be observed. Thus, “the *poets* of the age” would be correct when speaking of poets of both sexes; but the “best *poetess* of the age” would be used when speaking of female writers only.

NOTE 4.—In speaking of small animals, or of those whose sex is not known or not regarded, they are often considered as without sex: thus, we say of a *cat* “it is treacherous,” of an *infant* “it is beautiful,” of a *deer* “it was killed.”

NOTE 5.—Sometimes inanimate objects are spoken of as if having life; as, “The ship has lost *her* anchor.” In such instances, the noun is said to be personified, and instead of being neuter, as it otherwise would be, it becomes masculine or feminine. (See Appendix 5.)

NUMBER.

102. Number is the distinction of nouns in regard to UNITY and PLURALITY.

103. Nouns have two numbers; the SINGULAR and the PLURAL.

104. The Singular denotes ONE, the Plural MORE THAN ONE.

Mode of forming the Plural.

105. The Plural of nouns is generally formed by adding *s* to the Singular; as, *book*, *books*.

EXCEPTION 1.—The Plural of nouns ending in *s*, *sh*, *ch* soft, *x*, and *z*, is formed by adding *es*; as, *miss*, *misses*; *lash*, *lashes*; *church*, *churches*; *box*, *boxes*; *topaz*, *topazes*.

NOTE.—Nouns ending in *o* differ as to the mode of forming the plural. Some form the plural by adding *es*. Among these are *cargo*, *negro*, *mulatto*, *desperado*, *tornado*, *volcano*, *flamingo*, *potato*, *tomato*, *calico*, *hero*, *motto*, &c. Others form the plural by adding simply *s*. Among these are *canto*, *cento*, *grotto*, *junto*, *portico*, *piano*, *solo*, *tyro*, *armadillo*, *halo*, *memento*, *proviso*, *salvo*, *sirocco*, *virtuoso*, *zero*, *cameo*, *trio*, *quarto*, *octavo*, *duodecimo*, *folio*, &c.

EXERCISE.—Spell the plural of *negro*, *lynx*, *quiz*, *radish*, *patriarch*, *peach*, *mass*, *rhombus*, *trio*, *motto*, *halo*.

EXCEPTION 2.—The Plural of nouns ending in single *f* or *fe* is formed by changing *f* or *fe* into *ves*; as, *loaf*, *loaves*; *life*, *lives*.

NOTE 1.—The following form the plural according to the general rule, viz.: *Brief*, *chief*, *grief*, *mischief*, *kerchief*, *handkerchief*, *dwarf*, *surf*, *turf*, *fife*, *strife*, *hoof*, *roof*, *proof*, *reproof*, *safe*, *scarf*, *gulf*.

NOTE 2.—Nouns in double *f* follow the general rule; as, *muff*, *muffs*. Exc. *staff*, a stick, has *staves* in the plural; *staff*, a body of officers, has *staffs*. The compounds of *staff* all have *staffs* in the plural; as, *flagstaffs*, *tipstaffs*, *distaffs*, &c.

EXERCISE.—Spell the plural of *wharf*, *half*, *cuff*, *leaf*, *beef*, *calf*, *half*, *thief*, *wife*.

EXCEPTION 3.—The Plural of Nouns ending in *y* after a consonant, is formed by changing *y* into *ies*; as, *lady*, *ladies*.

NOTE.—Nouns ending in *y* after a vowel do not change *y* into *ies*, but form the plural by the general rule; as, *day*, *days*.

EXCEPTION 4.—The plural of letters, figures, and other characters, used as nouns, is formed by adding the apostrophe and *s*; as, "Dot your *i*'s and cross your *t*'s."

EXERCISE.—Spell the plural of the following: *Ray*, *toy*, *chimney*, *tray*, *artery*, *Monday*, *February*, *buoy*, *boy*, *attorney*, *valley*, *money*.

106. *Nouns irregular in the Plural.*

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Man	men	Tooth	teeth
Woman	women	Goose	geese
Child	children	Mouse	mice
Foot	feet	Louse	lice
Ox	oxen.		

NOTE 1.—The compounds of *man* form the plural in the same manner as the simple word; as, *alderman*, *aldermen*. Care should be taken, however, not to confound compounds of the word *man* with words that accidentally end in those three letters. Thus *statesman* is really compounded of two words, *states* and *man*; but *Turcoman*, *Mussulman*, *German*, are simple words like *talisman*, *ottoman* (a kind of seat), and form the plural regularly, thus: *Turcomans*, *Mussulmans*, *Germans*, *talismans*, *ottomans*.

NOTE 2.—Some nouns have in the plural two forms with different significations.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Regular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Irregular.</i>
Brother	brothers (<i>of same family</i>)	brethren (<i>of same society</i>)	
Die	dies (<i>for coining</i>)	dice (<i>for gaming</i>)	
Genius	geniuses (<i>men of genius</i>)	genii (<i>aerial spirits</i>)	
Index	indexes (<i>tables of reference</i>)	indices (<i>signs in algebra</i>)	
Penny	pennies	pence	} <i>in the mass</i>
Pea	peas	pease	
Cow	cows	kine	} <i>the kind of animal.</i>
Sow	sows	swine	

Plural of Compounds.

NOTE 3.—Compounds, consisting of two or more words connected by a hyphen, are generally composed, either of two nouns of which one is used in the sense of an adjective, as *man-trap*, where *man* is really an adjective; or of a noun and adjective, as *court-martial*; or of a noun and some expression

having the force of an adjective, as *father-in-law*, where *in-law* has the force of an adjective as much as the word *legal*. In all these compounds, the sign of the plural is added to that part of the compound which really constitutes the noun, whether at the end or not; thus, *man-traps*, *courts-martial*, *fathers-in-law*. In forming the possessive case, the rule is different, the sign of the possessive being uniformly added to the end of the compound expression: thus, *father-in law*, pl. *fathers-in-law*, poss. *father-in-law's*.

NOTE 4.—The compounds of *full* form the plural regularly; thus, *mouthful*, *mouthfuls*; *spoonful*, *spoonfuls*; *bucketful*, *bucketfuls*.

EXERCISE.—Form the plural of the following: Man-of-war, man-eater, drum-major, major-general, sergeant-at-arms, hen-coop, pin-cushion, bucket-full.

Plural of Foreign Words.

107. Words adopted without change from foreign languages generally retain their original plurals.

108. These words are now very numerous, particularly in works on science and the arts, and not a few are to be found in works of every description. Only a few of the most common can be given here. For the others, the learner should consult a dictionary.

Formula	formulæ	Phenomenon	phenomena
Nebula	nebulæ	Alumnus	alumni
Addendum	addenda	Focus	foci
Arcanum	arcana	Fungus	fungi
Datum	data	Radius	radii
Desideratum	desiderata	Sarcophagus	sarcophagi
Effluvium	effluvia	Stimulus	stimuli
Erratum	errata	Amanuensis	amanuenses
Gymnasium	gymnasia	Analysis	analyses
Stratum	strata	Antithesis	antitheses
Automaton	automata	Axis	axes
Criterion	criteria	Basis	bases

Crisis	crises	Vertex	vertices
Ellipsis	ellipses	Vortex	vortices
Hypothesis	hypotheses	Monsieur	messieurs
Metamorphosis	metamorphoses	Madame	mesdames
Oasis	oases	Beau	beaux
Thesis	theses	Dilettante	dilettanti.

109. Some of these foreign words are so far domesticated in the language as to have the *English* form of the plural as well as their original one. Among these are the following :

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Foreign Plural.</i>	<i>English Plural.</i>
Cherub	cherubim	cherubs
Seraph	seraphim	seraphs
Memorandum	memoranda	memorandums
Bandit	banditti	bandits
Virtuoso	virtuosi	virtuosos.

110. Some nouns are for the most part not used in the plural. Among these are the names of metals, virtues, vices, arts, sciences, abstract qualities, and of things that are either weighed or measured ; as, *gold, industry, idleness, sculpture, geometry, wisdom, flour, milk.*

111. Some nouns are used only in the plural. Among these are *annals, antipodes, archives, ashes, assets, clothes, measles, oats, tidings, victuals, wages* ; also the names of things consisting of two parts, as, *bellows, scissors, tongs, pantaloons, &c.*

112. Some nouns are alike in both numbers. Among these are *deer, sheep, trout, salmon, &c.* ; also several foreign words, as *apparatus, series, species, &c.* The singular of such words may generally be distinguished by the use of the indefinite article *a* or *an* ; as, *a series, a deer, a trout, an apparatus, &c.*

113. Many nouns are sometimes alike in both numbers, and at other times have a regular form for the plural. Among these are *head, brace, pair, couple, dozen, score, &c.* Thus we say “He bought *twenty dozen* of them,” and “He bought them in dozens.”

114. Some nouns are plural in form, but either singular or plural in meaning. Among them are *amends, means, news,*

riches, &c.; also the names of certain sciences, as *conics*, *optics*, *ethics*, *mathematics*, &c.

115. *Means* and *amends* are singular when they refer to only one object, plural when they refer to more than one. The singular *mean* is also used to signify strictly the middle between two extremes. *News* is rarely found with a plural signification. *Riches* has both a singular and a plural signification. *Alms* is strictly singular. (See Appendix 6.)

PERSON.

116. PERSON is the distinction of nouns in their relation to the speaker.

117. Nouns have three persons, FIRST, SECOND, and THIRD.

118. The First person is THE SPEAKER, the Second is THE ONE SPOKEN TO, the Third is THE ONE SPOKEN OF.

NOTE.—Instances of the use of nouns in the first Person are not common, and as no change in the form of the word takes place in consequence of the person, some grammarians omit it altogether in speaking of nouns. (See Appendix 7.)

CASE.

119. CASE distinguishes the relation of a noun to some verb, preposition, or other noun.

120. Nouns have three cases, NOMINATIVE, POSSESSIVE, and OBJECTIVE.

NOTE.—The relation indicated by the case of a noun includes three ideas, viz.: those of *subject*, *object*, and *ownership*. A noun may be to a verb in the relation of its *subject*, or that of which the assertion is made, and then it is in the nominative case; or it may be to a verb or preposition in the relation of an *object*, or that on which some action or relation terminates, and then it is in the objective case; or it may have to some other

noun the relation of *ownership* or *possession*, and then it is in the possessive case. According to this view of the subject,

121. The Nominative Case is that in which a noun IS THE SUBJECT OF A VERB.

122. The Possessive Case is that which DENOTES OWNERSHIP OR POSSESSION.

123. The Objective Case is that in which THE NOUN IS THE OBJECT OF SOME VERB OR PREPOSITION.

NOTE.—Pronouns have cases, in the same manner as nouns.

How to find the Nominative.—The subject of the verb may be found by putting “who” or “what” before the verb and asking the question. Example: “A man bought a hat.” Who bought? Ans. Man. Therefore, “man” is the subject of the verb “bought,” and is in the nominative case.

EXERCISES.—Find the subject of the verb in each of the following sentences:

The teacher of the second division assigned to the first section a lesson in geography.

A lesson in geography was assigned to the whole division.

Idleness in youth brings misery in old age.

Lying leads to other bad habits.

How to find the Objective.—The object of a verb or preposition may be found by putting “whom” or “what” after the verb or preposition and asking the question. Examples: “William hurt his sister.” Hurt whom? Ans. Sister. Therefore, “sister” is the object of the verb “hurt.” “William went into the street.” Into what? Ans. Street. Therefore, “street” is the object of the preposition “into.”

EXERCISE.—Find the object of each of the verbs and prepositions in the foregoing sentences.

FORM OF THE CASES.

124. The Nominative and Objective cases are alike in form.

125. The Possessive singular is formed from the nominative singular, by adding an *apostrophe* and *s*.

126. When the nominative singular ends in *s*, or in the sound of *s*, and there is likewise the sound of *s* in the first part of the syllable, and the next word also begins with *s*, the possessive singular is formed by taking an *apostrophe* only, without an additional *s*. The object of this is to avoid too great a combination of hissing sounds. Thus, "for Jesus' sake," "for conscience' sake." When the nominative singular ends in *ss*, and the next word begins with *s*, the *s* is sometimes omitted after the *apostrophe*, even though there is no additional *s* sound in the first part of the syllable; as, "for goodness' sake."

NOTE.—The best writers at the present time very rarely omit the *s* after the *apostrophe* in the singular.

127. The Possessive plural is formed from the nominative plural, by adding an *apostrophe* only when the plural ends in *s*, and by adding both the *apostrophe* and *s* when the plural does not end in *s*.

NOTE.—For the origin of the Possessive case see Appendix 8.

DECLENSION OF NOUNS.

<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>		
Nom.	Poss.	Obj.	Nom.	Poss.	Obj.
Friend	friend's	friend	friends	friends'	friends
Man	man's	man	men	men's	men
Church	church's	church	churches	churches'	churches
Lady	lady's	lady	ladies	ladies'	ladies
Jones	Jones's	Jones	Joneses	Joneses'	Joneses.

128. When the nominative ends in a sound with which the apostrophic *s* cannot combine, the word is pronounced as if *es* were added. Thus, *church's* is pronounced exactly like *churches*. Care should be taken in writing these forms, not to be misled by the sound.

129. In like manner care should be taken not to confound

the possessive singular and the nominative plural of nouns ending in *y* after a consonant, which are pronounced alike, though written differently; as, *lady*, *lady's*, *ladies*.

130. The import of the possessive may generally be expressed by the preposition *of*; thus, "*man's* wisdom" means "the wisdom *of man*." These two forms of expression, however, do not always have the same meaning. Thus, "the king's picture" means a picture *belonging* to the king; but "a picture of the king" means a *portrait* of him.

131. The apostrophe and *s* do not always indicate the possessive case. They are sometimes employed to form the plural of mere letters or characters used as nouns; as four 3's, ten 6's, &c.; also to form the singular of verbs of a similar character; as, "He *pro's* and *con's*, and weighs the matter over." (See Article 105, Exc. 4.)

EXERCISES IN DECLENSION.—Decline *fox*, *farmer*, *Benjamin*, *James*, *city*, *attorney*, *lass*, *miss*.

Form the possessive case singular of *Agnes*, *Robert Morris*, *Roger Williams*, *Martin Van Buren*, *John Quincy Adams*.

Form the possessive case singular and plural of *baby*, *colony*, *andlady*, *dray*, *calf*, *mulatto*, *ox-cart*, *ox*, *maid-of-all-work*.

Correct the following expressions: *Lazarus' son*; *The 9s were cast out*; *There are two ks in kick*; *James' lesson is hard*.

PARSING EXERCISES.

Sentence.—"John went home."

MODEL.—"John" (1.) is a noun, it is the name of a person; (2.) a proper noun, it is the name of an individual; (3.) of the masculine gender, it denotes a male; (4.) in the singular number, it denotes but one; (5.) in the third person, it is spoken of; (6.) in the nominative case, it is the subject of the verb "went."

NOTE.—The figures inserted in this model are not to be recited. They are put in to show the order in which the several properties of the word are to be given. These six items must be given, and given in this order, in parsing every noun. The scholar in learning, and the teacher in hearing the recitation,

by following the order of the figures, may know that nothing is omitted.

EXERCISE.—Parse all the Nouns and Articles in the following sentences: Grace Darling, the heroine, was a lighthouse keeper's daughter. In a great emergency, she helped her father to row a boat during a dreadful storm, and was the means, in the hands of Providence, of preventing sorrow in many mothers' hearts.

ADJECTIVES.

132. An ADJECTIVE is a word used to qualify a Noun; as, *good man*. (See Appendix 9.)

133. Nouns become adjectives when they are used to express some quality of another noun; as, *gold ring*, *sea water*.

134. Adjectives are sometimes used as nouns, and admit of number and case; as, our *superiors*, his *betters*, by *fifties*, for *twenty's sake*, &c.

135. Adjectives preceded by the definite article are often used as nouns; as, "The little that was known of him." When the expression refers to persons, the adjective is always considered plural; as, "the good," meaning good men.

NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

136. Adjectives which express number are called NUMERALS.

137. Numeral Adjectives are of three kinds, the CARDINAL, ORDINAL, and MULTIPLICATIVE.

138. The Cardinal Adjectives are, *one, two, three, four*, &c.

139. The Ordinal Adjectives are, *first, second, third, fourth*, &c.

140. The Multiplicatives are, *single, double, triple, quadruple*, &c.

141. There are also various compound adjectives into which the numerals enter; as, *one-leaved, two-leaved, three-leaved*, &c., *two-fold, three-fold, four-fold*, &c.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

142. Adjectives are varied by COMPARISON.

143. The Degrees of Comparison are three, the

POSITIVE, COMPARATIVE, and SUPERLATIVE. (See Appendix 10.)

144. The Comparative and Superlative are formed by adding *er* and *est* to the Positive; as, *great*, *greater*, *greatest*.

145. Adjectives are also compared by prefixing to the Positive the words *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*; as, *numerous*; *more numerous*, *most numerous*; *less numerous*, *least numerous*.

NOTE 1.—*More* and *most*, *less* and *least*, in these cases, may be parsed separately as adverbs, or the two words may be taken together as the comparative or superlative form of the adjective.

NOTE 2.—Some adjectives form the superlative by adding *most* to the end of the word; as, *upper*, *uppermost*.

146. Adjectives of one syllable are generally compared by the first mode, namely, by *er* and *est*.

147. Adjectives of more than one syllable are generally compared by the second mode, namely, by *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*.

148. Dissyllables ending in *y* and *e* generally take *er* and *est*; as, *happy*, *happier*, *happiest*; *able*, *abler*, *ablest*.

ADJECTIVES COMPARED IRREGULARLY.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Good	better	best
Bad	worse	worst
Little	less	least
Much	more	most
Far	{ farther { further	{ farthest { furthest.
	C	

149. *Bad* has also *evil* and *ill* in the positive ; and *much* has also *many*. *Elder* and *eldest* come regularly from *eld* (now obsolete).

150. The following have two forms of the superlative with different meanings.

Near	nearer	nearest	(in place)	next	} in order.
Late	later	latest	(in time)	last	
Fore	former	foremost	(in place)	first	

151. *Prior*, *superior*, *ulterior*, *exterior*, *inferior*, &c., involve the idea of comparison, as do also the words *previous*, *preferable*, and many others, but they are not considered as comparatives, and are not followed by *than*, as English comparatives usually are.

152. The termination *ish* makes what is sometimes called a subpositive ; as, *bluish*, *blackish*, &c.

153. Some of the ideas expressed by adjectives are fixed and absolute. That is, they refer to things not capable of increase or diminution. Among these may be reckoned those which denote some definite number, shape, or position ; as, *two*, *three*, *second*, *third*, *circular*, *triangular*, *perpendicular*, &c. ; also those which express the substance of which any thing is made, as, *golden*, *flawen*, &c. ; also many such words as *universal*, *perfect*. All such adjectives are incapable of being compared.

EXERCISES IN COMPARISON.—Compare *unlucky*, *lucky*, *benevolent*, *shady*, *sad*, *active*, *abusive*, *noisy*, *lazy*, *gay*, *fine*, *irregular*, *harmonious*.

Give the superlative of *hind*, *inner*, *outer*, *top*.

PARSING EXERCISES.—Parse “wise” in the sentence, “Solomon was a wise king.”

MODEL.—“Wise (1.) is an adjective, it is used to qualify the name ‘king ;’ (2.) it is in the positive degree, compared ‘wise, wiser, wisest.’”

Parse all the Nouns and Adjectives in the following sentences :

The exterior of the stone wall was made perpendicular. It

was two feet thick at the top, and of double thickness at the bottom.

We should not consider our inferiors contemptible, for though they may be our inferiors in rank, perhaps they are our superiors in virtue.

The wicked who put off repentance to the eleventh hour, are more foolish than the man who waited until it rained to mend a leaky roof.

Rain water is less pleasant to the taste than river or spring water. Though the former may contain less foreign matter, the latter is preferable to the thirsty.

PRONOUNS.

154. A PRONOUN is a word used instead of a noun ; as, "The man is happy, because *he* is benevolent."
(See Appendix 11.)

Division of the Pronouns.

155. Pronouns are divided into three classes ; PERSONAL, RELATIVE, and ADJECTIVE.

156. Adjective Pronouns are again subdivided into three classes ; DISTRIBUTIVE, DEMONSTRATIVE, and INDEFINITE.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

157. The Personal Pronouns are five ; *I, thou, he, she, it* ; with their plurals, *we, you, they*.

158. They are called Personal Pronouns because they denote the person by themselves, and without reference to any other word.

NOTE.—See Note under the Relative Pronouns, page 39, and also Appendix 12.

159. Personal Pronouns have Gender, Number, Person, and Case.

Declension of the Personal Pronouns.

FIRST PERSON—Masc. or Fem.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.		Nom.	<i>we</i>
Poss.	<i>my, or mine</i>	Poss.	<i>our, or ours</i>
Obj.	<i>me</i>	Obj.	<i>us.</i>

SECOND PERSON—Masc. or Fem.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>thou</i>	Nom.	<i>you</i>
Poss.	<i>thy, or thine</i>	Poss.	<i>your, or yours</i>
Obj.	<i>thee</i>	Obj.	<i>you.</i>

THIRD PERSON—Masculine.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>he</i>	Nom.	<i>they</i>
Poss.	<i>his</i>	Poss.	<i>their, or theirs</i>
Obj.	<i>him</i>	Obj.	<i>them.</i>

THIRD PERSON—Feminine.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>she</i>	Nom.	<i>they</i>
Poss.	<i>her, or hers</i>	Poss.	<i>their, or theirs</i>
Obj.	<i>her</i>	Obj.	<i>them.</i>

THIRD PERSON—Neuter.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>it</i>	Nom.	<i>they</i>
Poss.	<i>its</i>	Poss.	<i>their, or theirs</i>
Obj.	<i>it</i>	Obj.	<i>them.</i>

160. The first and second persons being always present to the view, their sex is supposed to be known. A separate form, therefore, is not needed to distinguish the sex. It is otherwise in the third person. That which is spoken of is, or may be, absent. (See Appendix 13.)

161. In the first person, the plural *we* is often used for the singular *I*, by Editors, Reviewers, Governors, &c.

162. In the second person, the plural is generally used for the singular. Thus, *you* is used for *thou*, *your* or *yours* for *thy* or *thine*, and *you* for *thee*. In prayers to God, however, and on

other solemn occasions, we use the singular form, *thou, thy* or *thine*, and *thee*.

NOTE.—Where a plural pronoun is thus used, while only one person is meant, the verb as well as the pronoun must be plural; thus, *we are*, not *we is*; *you were*, not *you was*.

163. The second person plural had formerly *ye* both in the nominative and the objective. This form is now obsolete in the objective, and nearly obsolete in the nominative.

164. The Possessives should never be written with an apostrophe, *her's, it's, our's, your's, their's*, but always thus: *hers, its, ours, yours, theirs*.

165. *It* is often used indefinitely, for either number, or any gender. Thus we say, "It is he," "It is she," "It is they," "It is I," &c.

166. The adjective *own* is frequently found connected with the possessive case of the personal pronoun, in order to make the possessive emphatic; thus, "It is your *own* fault."

Compound Personal Pronouns.

167. *Myself, thyself, herself, and itself*, are called
COMPOUND PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

168. In the Compound Personal Pronouns, the nominative and objective cases are alike, and the possessive is wanting.

Declension of the Compound Personal Pronouns.

FIRST PERSON—Masc. or Fem.

	<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
Nom.	<i>myself</i>	Nom.	<i>ourselves</i>
Poss.	(wanting)	Poss.	(wanting)
Obj.	<i>myself</i>	Obj.	<i>ourselves.</i>

SECOND PERSON—Masc. or Fem.

	<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>
Nom.	<i>thyself</i>	Nom.	<i>yourselves</i>
Poss.	(wanting)	Poss.	(wanting)
Obj.	<i>thyself</i>	Obj.	<i>yourselves.</i>

THIRD PERSON—Masculine.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>himself</i>	Nom.	<i>themselves</i>
Poss.	(wanting)	Poss.	(wanting)
Obj.	<i>himself</i>	Obj.	<i>themselves.</i>

THIRD PERSON—Feminine.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>herself</i>	Nom.	<i>themselves</i>
Poss.	(wanting)	Poss.	(wanting)
Obj.	<i>herself</i>	Obj.	<i>themselves.</i>

THIRD PERSON—Neuter.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>itself</i>	Nom.	<i>themselves</i>
Poss.	(wanting)	Poss.	(wanting)
Obj.	<i>itself</i>	Obj.	<i>themselves.</i>

NOTE.—Analogy would require *himself* to be *hissself*, and *themselves* to be *theirselves*, but custom has determined otherwise.

PARSING EXERCISES.—Parse “he,” in the sentence, “When John was at school, *he* wrote a letter to his father.”

MODEL.—“He” is (1.) a personal pronoun, (2.) third person, (3.) masculine gender, (4.) singular number, (5.) nominative case.

Parse all the Personal Pronouns in the following examples:

The wind, when it blows upon my body, making it shiver, tells me that I am mortal, though some persons would only complain that they were obliged to bear its buffetings.

The Queen of Sheba retired from Solomon’s presence, convinced that his wisdom was greater than any account of it that had been given to her of it, would have led her to infer.

We, the people, watch those who are our rulers with jealousy, that they may not infringe upon our rights, and that the liberties which we possess, may be secured to our children when they succeed us.

Parse all the Articles, Nouns, and Adjectives in the foregoing sentences.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

169. The Relative Pronouns are, *who*, *which*, and *that*.

170. These are called Relative Pronouns because they relate to some word going before, called the antecedent; as, "*The boy who* wishes to be learned, must be studious."

NOTE.—Every pronoun, indeed, necessarily relates to the word which it represents. But this relation is not the leading and prominent idea in any except the Relative pronouns. In each of the three classes of pronouns, it is the leading and prominent idea which gives name to the class. Thus, the leading idea in the Personal pronouns is the distinction of Person; in the Relative pronouns, it is the relation to the antecedent; in the Adjective pronouns, it is the dependence of the word upon some noun in the manner of an adjective. (See Appendix 14.)

171. In speaking of persons, we use the Relative *who*; as, "The lady *who* called at the house." In speaking of inferior animals, or things without life, we use *which*; as, "The horse *which* my father bought," "The pencil *which* the teacher gave me."

172. *That* is often used in speaking either of persons or things; as, "The best boy *that* lives," "The same book *that* was lost."

173. *Who* and *which* are alike in both numbers.

Declension of WHO.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>who</i>	Nom.	<i>who</i>
Poss.	<i>whose</i>	Poss.	<i>whose</i>
Obj.	<i>whom</i>	Obj.	<i>whom</i>

Declension of WHICH.

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>which</i>	Nom.	<i>which</i>
Poss.	<i>whose</i>	Poss.	<i>whose</i>
Obj.	<i>which</i>	Obj.	<i>which.</i>

174. *That* is indeclinable.

Compound Relatives.

175. *What* is a COMPOUND RELATIVE, including both the relative and the antecedent.

176. *What* is equivalent in the singular to *that which*, and in the plural to *those which*.

EXAMPLES.—In the singular, “Give me *what* I want,” means “*That* (thing) *which* I want;” in the plural, “*What* appear to be faults,” means “*Those* (things) *which* appear to be faults.”

177. *Who*, *which*, and *what*, when joined with *ever* or *soever*, are also Compound Relatives: thus, *whoever* means *any one who*; as, “Whoever hopes to win the prize, must labor hard;” *whatsoever* means *anything which*; as, “Whatsoever is more than these, cometh of evil.”

178. The Compound Relatives thus formed are six, namely, *whoever*, *whosoever*, *whichever*, *whichever*, *whosoever*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever*.

179. *Whosoever* is regularly declined like *who*; thus,

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
Nom.	<i>whosoever</i>	Nom.	<i>whosoever</i>
Poss.	<i>whosoever</i>	Poss.	<i>whosoever</i>
Obj.	<i>whomsoever</i>	Obj.	<i>whomsoever.</i>

180. All the other Compound Relatives are indeclinable.

181. The word *that* is used in three senses. 1. Sometimes it

has the meaning of *who* or *which*; as, "The best boy *that* lives;" and then it is a Relative Pronoun. 2. Sometimes it points out a noun; as, *that* boy; and then it is an Adjective Pronoun. 3. Sometimes it shows the dependence of one verb upon another; as, He wished *that* he had done it; and then it is a Conjunction.

182. *Which* and *what*, are often used as *Adjective Pronouns*; as, "*Which* things are an allegory." "By *what* means shall a young man learn?"

183. *What*, *whatever*, and *whatsoever*, are also used both as *Relative* and *Adjective Pronouns* at the same time; as, "We lost *what* books we had," that is, *those books which* we had.

184. *Whether* (meaning which one of the two) is now obsolete, *which* being used in its place. *Whether* (a Conjunction) is still in use.

Interrogatives and Responsives.

185. In *asking* questions, *who*, *which*, and *what* are called *Interrogatives*. As *Interrogatives*, they have no *antecedent*, but relate to a word *subsequent*, contained in the answer. Thus, "*Who* did it? *John*."

186. In *answering* questions, *who*, *which*, and *what* are called *Responsives*. As *responsives*, they seem to relate to no word, either *antecedent* or *subsequent*. Thus, in the response, "I do not know *who* wrote it," supplying an antecedent, changes the meaning. "I do not know *the person* who wrote it," means, I am not *acquainted* with him, which is quite a different idea.

187. *Which* and *what*, when used as *Interrogatives*, or *Responsives*, or when joined with *ever* and *soever*, apply to *persons* as well as things; as, *Which* of them did it? *John*. *What* is he? A lawyer.

188. The word used to answer the question must be the same as the one used to ask it; thus, *Who* wrote the book? I do not know *who* wrote it. *Which* of the gentlemen was it? I do not know *which* of them it was. *What* is he? I do not know *what* he is.

189. In asking about persons, *who* inquires for the *name*; as, "*Who* wrote the book? Mr. Webster;" *which* asks for the par-

ticular *individual*, where there are several persons of the same name; as, "*Which* of the Websters wrote it? Noah Webster;" *what* asks for the person's *character* or *occupation*; as, "*What* was Mr. Webster? A lexicographer."

NOTE.—Relative Pronouns are of the same gender, number, and person as their antecedent.

PARSING EXERCISES.—Parse "who," in the sentence, "John, *who* was at school, wrote a letter to his father."

MODEL.—"Who" is (1.) a relative pronoun, relating to "John" for its antecedent; (2.) it is third person, (3.) singular number, (4.) and masculine gender, to agree with "John;" and (5.) is in the nominative case.

MODEL FOR COMPOUND RELATIVES.—"Give me *what* I want." "What" is a compound relative, including both antecedent and relative (*that—which*), in the third person, singular number, neuter gender. As antecedent, it is in the objective case, object of the verb "give." As relative, it is in the objective case, object of the verb "want."

"*Whoever* hopes to win the prize, must labor hard." "Whoever" is a compound relative, including both antecedent and relative (*any one—who*), in the third person, singular number, common gender. As antecedent, it is in the nominative case, subject of the verb "must labor." As relative, it is in the nominative case, subject of the verb "hopes."

MODEL FOR WORDS USED BOTH AS RELATIVE AND ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.—"We lost *what* books we had." "What" is a compound relative, equivalent to an adjective pronoun and a relative (*those—which*). As an adjective pronoun, it qualifies "books." As a relative, it is in the third person, plural number, neuter gender, agreeing with "books," and in the objective case, object of the verb "had."

MODEL FOR INTERROGATIVES AND RESPONSIVES.—"*Who* did it? John." "Who" is an interrogative pronoun, relating to the subsequent word "John;" it is in the third person, singular number, and masculine gender, to agree with "John;" and is in the nominative case, subject of the verb "did."

"*Who* wrote the letter?" "*Who*" is an interrogative pronoun, relating to some noun contained in the answer, and not yet given; its person, number, and gender, therefore, cannot be determined; it is in the nominative case, subject of the verb "*wrote*."

"I do not know *who* wrote it." "*Who*" is a responsive pronoun, not relating to any word, either antecedent or subsequent; its person, number, and gender cannot be determined; it is in the nominative case, subject of the verb "*wrote*."

Parse the Relative Pronouns, Compound Relatives, Interrogatives, and Responsives in the following sentences:

In this country in which we live, every one that is a citizen can enjoy what in other countries is enjoyed by only a favored few. The President whom we have just chosen to rule over us is a living example of what the poorest man may achieve. Whoever has the ability to rise, is in no way checked by a government which affords equal protection to all.

By what slow degrees the little acorn becomes the mighty oak!

Whatever skill I have in composition, is due to the manner in which I was trained.

In the haste and confusion, I could not see by whom it was that he was struck.

What happened to you and your sister on your way to school?

Parse each of the Articles, Nouns, Adjectives, and Personal Pronouns in the foregoing sentences.

ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

190. The ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS are so called because they depend upon a noun, as an adjective does.

191. The Adjective Pronouns are subdivided into three kinds or classes; viz. DISTRIBUTIVE, DEMONSTRATIVE, and INDEFINITE. (See Appendix 14.)

NOTE 1.—*My, thy, his, her, its, our, your, and their* (which have been given as personal pronouns in the possessive case) are sometimes called Possessive Adjective Pronouns.

Distributives.

192. The DISTRIBUTIVE Adjective Pronouns are, *each, every, either, neither.*

193. These are called DISTRIBUTIVES, because they refer separately and singly to each person or thing of a number of persons or things. The Distributive Adjective Pronouns, therefore, are all in the singular number.

194. *Each* is used when speaking of two or more. Example: "*Each* of you will go directly home." This will be correct whether it is addressed to two persons, or to more than two.

195. *Every* is never used except when speaking of more than two. Example: "*Every* one of you will go directly home." This would not be correct if addressed to only two persons.

196. *Each* and *every* mean all that make up the number, although taken separately.

197. *Either* means one or the other, but not both. It is used, therefore, when speaking of but two persons or things.

198. *Neither* means not either.

Demonstratives.

199. The DEMONSTRATIVE Adjective Pronouns are *this* and *that*, with their plurals, *these* and *those*.

200. These are called DEMONSTRATIVES, because they point out the objects to which they relate in a definite manner; thus, *This* boy recited well, but *that* boy did not; *These* men are officers, but *those* men are privates.

201. The Demonstratives *this* and *these*, are applied to near objects; *that* and *those* to objects that are distant.

202. In contrast, *that* refers to the first mentioned, *this* to the last; as, "Wealth and poverty are both temptations; *that* [wealth] tends to excite pride, *this* [poverty] discontent."

Indefinites.

203. The INDEFINITE Adjective Pronouns are, *any, all, such, some, both, one, none, other, another.*

204. These are called INDEFINITES, because they point out the objects to which they relate in an indefinite manner.

205. *One, other, another,* are sometimes used as nouns. When thus used, they are declined. Thus:

<i>Sing.</i>	{	Nom.	One	<i>Sing.</i>	{	Nom.	Other
		Poss.	One's			Poss.	Other's
		Obj.	One			Obj.	Other
<i>Plur.</i>	{	Nom.	Ones	<i>Plur.</i>	{	Nom.	Others
		Poss.	Ones'			Poss.	Others'
		Obj.	Ones.			Obj.	Others.

206. *Another* is merely the article *an* and *other*, and is used only in the singular number.

<i>Singular.</i>	{	Nom.	Another
		Poss.	Another's
		Obj.	Another.

PARSING EXERCISES.—Parse “this,” in the sentence, “John wrote *this* letter.”

MODEL.—“This” (1.) is a demonstrative adjective pronoun, (2.) singular number, (3.) and belongs to “letter.”

Parse the Adjective Pronouns in the following sentences:

That class of society in which only those who are wealthy are members, and in which each individual possesses no other merit, may be respected, but it has not the highest claims to respectability. All wise and good men, of any class, or of whatever rank, or of either of the two grades which the world has made,—the rich and the poor,—are worthy of respect. Such men receive the respect of all.

VERBS.

207. A VERB is a word used to assert or affirm; as, “John *strikes* the table.”

EXPLANATION.—No assertion can be complete in sense unless a verb is used. As this part of speech is the vital, essential portion of an assertion or affirmation, it is therefore defined as a word used to assert or affirm. (See Appendix 15.)

Attributes of Verbs.

208. Verbs have VOICE, MOOD, TENSE, NUMBER, and PERSON.

Certain parts of the verb also are called PARTICIPLES.

VOICE.

209. VOICE is that attribute of the verb which denotes whether the subject or nominative of the verb ACTS, or IS ACTED UPON.

210. Verbs have two voices, the ACTIVE, and the PASSIVE.

211. The ACTIVE VOICE is that form of the verb which denotes that the subject or nominative acts, or does the thing mentioned; as, “John *strikes* the table.”

212. The PASSIVE VOICE is that form of the verb which denotes that the subject or nominative is acted upon; as, “The table *is struck* by John.”

NOTE.—The action is the same in both examples, only the agent and the object have changed places.

MOOD.

213. MOOD is that attribute of a verb by which it denotes the manner or way in which the assertion is expressed.

NOTE.—Mood is only another form of the word “mode,” and signifies manner, or way.

Division of the Moods.

It is the office of the verb to assert or affirm something. If this assertion or affirmation is limited to some subject or nominative, the verb is said to be *finite*. The assertion may be connected with the subject in four different ways, giving rise to the four finite modes or moods. 1. The assertion may be expressed directly and without limitation, and then it is in the Indicative mood; as, "The boy sleeps." 2. It may be expressed as an uncertainty, and then it is in the Subjunctive mood; as, "If the boy sleeps." 3. It may be expressed as a possibility, &c., and then it is in the Potential mood; as, "The boy may sleep." 4. It may be expressed as a command, &c., and then it is in the Imperative mood; as, "Sleep, boy." Some times the assertion is not limited to any particular subject, and then it is said to be in the Infinitive, that is, the *unlimited* mood; as, "To sleep."

214. Verbs have five Moods; the INDICATIVE, the SUBJUNCTIVE, the POTENTIAL, the IMPERATIVE, and the INFINITIVE.

215. The INDICATIVE Mood is that form of the verb in which the assertion is expressed directly and without limitation.

NOTE.—The Indicative mood is also used in asking direct questions; as, Does the sun shine? Does my mother love me? This is sometimes called the Interrogative form.

216. The SUBJUNCTIVE Mood is that form of the verb in which the assertion is expressed as an uncertainty.

217. The Subjunctive mood is generally preceded by a conjunction, such as *if, though; although, unless, except, whether, or lest*.

218. The Subjunctive mood is always accompanied with another verb in some other mood. Without this it cannot make complete sense. Thus, "Though he studies diligently, he does not succeed."

219. The **POTENTIAL** Mood is that form of the verb which expresses possibility, liberty, power, willingness, or obligation.

NOTE.—The Potential mood is also used in asking questions; as, *May I write? Must I write? &c.*

220. The **IMPERATIVE** Mood is that form of the verb which is used to command, exhort, entreat, or permit.

221. The **INFINITIVE** Mood is that form of the verb which is not limited to a subject, or which has no subject.

TENSE.

222. **TENSE** is that attribute of a verb by which it expresses distinctions of **TIME**.

223. There are six tenses, the **PRESENT**, the **PAST**, the **PERFECT**, the **PLUPERFECT**, the **FIRST FUTURE**, and the **SECOND FUTURE**. (See Appendix 16.)

224. The **PRESENT TENSE** is that form of the verb which denotes present time; as, *I write*.

NOTE 1.—The Present Tense often expresses what is habitual, universal, or permanent; as, “The sun gives light by day. the moon by night;” “Charity thinketh no evil.”

NOTE 2.—When preceded by certain conjunctions, such as *when, after, as soon as, &c.*, the Present Tense sometimes conveys the idea of that which is yet future; as, “When the mail arrives, I shall have a letter.”

225. The **PAST TENSE** is that form of the verb which denotes simply past time; as, *I wrote*.

NOTE.—This is sometimes called the *Imperfect Tense*.

226. The **PERFECT TENSE** is that form of the verb which denotes what is past and finished, but connected also with the present time; as, *I have written*.

NOTE.—When preceded by certain conjunctions, such as *when, after, as soon as, &c.*, the Perfect Tense, like the present, often denotes something yet to come; as, “When I have finished my letter, I will attend to your request.”

227. The PLUPERFECT TENSE is that form of the verb which denotes what is past and finished, before some other event which is also past; as, I *had written* the letter, before it was called for.

228. The FIRST FUTURE TENSE is that form of the verb which denotes simply future time; as, I *shall write*.

229. The SECOND FUTURE TENSE is that form of the verb which denotes a future time, prior to some other time which is itself future; as, I *shall have written* the letter before it will be called for.

In regard to the tenses of the Subjunctive and Potential moods, see Appendix 17.

REMARKS ON THE MOODS AND TENSES.

1. *The Number of the Tenses in the Different Moods.*—The Indicative and Subjunctive Moods have all six of the tenses; the Potential has four, the Present, Past, Perfect, and Pluperfect; the Imperative has only the Present; and the Infinitive has the Present and the Perfect.

2. *The Nature of the Perfect Tense, and the Distinction between it and the Past Tense.*—The Perfect Tense includes three distinct ideas. 1. The action is finished, hence the name, Perfect. 2. It was commenced in past time. 3. It is connected in some way with the present. Thus, in the phrase, “I have written a letter this week,” the letter is finished; it was commenced at some time previous to the present moment, and consequently in past time; and the act was done during a period of which the present moment is a part.

The Perfect and the Past (at least the ordinary form of it)

agree in two things. They both express what is past; they both express what is finished. But they differ in this. The period of time in which the act is done, extends in the Perfect tense to the present moment; in the Imperfect it does not. It excludes all ideas of the present instant. The phrases, "I wrote a letter yesterday," "I have written a letter this week," may both refer to the same transaction. But the mode of expression in the former case describes the action as occurring in a period of time which was complete before the present time; while in the latter, some portion of the period assigned still remains.

Hence the Perfect is often used to express what continues to the present time in its consequences, although we know that the period of the action was complete long ago; as, "Cicero has written orations." We cannot in like manner say, "Cicero has written poems." His poems are lost, his orations still exist. Cicero, *the poet*, perished long since, but Cicero, *the orator*, is still extant, and may be conceived as existing and acting in a period extending down to the present moment. For the same reason, we cannot say, "The Druids have claimed great powers," for they were long since extinct, and they have left no writing or other instrument in which such claim can be conceived as now set forth. We may, however, say, "Mahomet has claimed great powers," for the claim still exists in the Koran. An author is universally considered as living while his writings live. Hence he may be considered as having done a thing in a period of time not yet expired.

3. *The Tense, Person, and Number of the Imperative Mood.*—A command, an exhortation, or an entreaty, is necessarily a present act. The Imperative Mood, therefore, is always in the present tense. The command, exhortation, or entreaty, being spoken to some party, is necessarily in the second person. It will be singular or plural according to circumstances. Its nominative will always be either *thou*, or *you*, understood. Thus, "Sit still," if addressed to one person, is singular, and means, "Sit *thou* still;" if addressed to more than one, it is plural, and means, "Sit *you* still." Whether the nominative to the Imperative mood is *thou* understood, or *you*, must be learned, in each particular case, from other words in the sentence.

“Brethren, pray for us.” Here, the word “brethren” shows that more than one are addressed. Therefore, the verb is plural, and its nominative is “you” understood. “Father, forgive them.” Here, the word “Father” shows that only one is addressed. The verb, therefore, is singular, and its nominative is “thou” understood.

4. *The Tenses of the Potential and Subjunctive Moods.*—The auxiliaries *might*, *could*, *would*, and *should*, are often used as expressing the primary meaning of these words, that is, simply possibility, liberty, willingness, and obligation, without distinguishing the time, or, rather, leaving the time to be determined by the other words in the sentence. They may therefore be used equally, where the meaning is present, past, or future. Thus, “He could do it now, if he would” (Present); “He could not do it yesterday, because his father would not let him” (Past); “He could do it to-morrow, if his father would let him” (Future). (See also Appendix 17.)

5. *Formation of the Subjunctive Mood by transposing the Nominative and the Verb.*—Any verb in the past tense may be rendered subjunctive in meaning by putting the nominative after the verb, or between the verb and the auxiliary. This is very common with the verbs *to have*, *to be*, and *to do*. Thus, “Had I a book, I would study the lesson,” means, “If I had a book,” &c. When this construction occurs with the verb *to be*, the verb assumes the subjunctive form as well as meaning; thus, were I, wert thou, were he, &c., and not, was I, wast thou, &c.

6. *Peculiar usage of the Verbs To HAVE and To BE.*—There is a peculiar usage of *to have* and *to be* that needs to be noted. *Were* is often used in the subjunctive form without a conjunction, and with a potential meaning, or in the sense of *would be*; thus, “I *were* an idiot, thus to speak,” that is, “I *would be* an idiot, &c.” In like manner, *had* is used in the sense of *would have*; thus, “It *had been* good for that man if he had never been born,” that is, “It *would have been* good,” &c.

There is another usage of *had* still more remarkable, and so far as I know, incapable of explanation by anything analogous in the language. It is where *had* bears the meaning simply of *would*; thus, “I *had* rather not do it,” “I *had* as lief not be,

as live to be," &c. The peculiarity in the previous paragrapns has reference to the meaning. Here it is a peculiarity of form as well as meaning, analogy requiring *had been*, *had done*, &c., not *had be*, *had do*.

PARTICIPLES.

230. A PARTICIPLE is that form of the verb which partakes of the nature both of a verb and of an adjective.

Nature of the Participles.—The Participles contain an affirmation in the form of a supposition, or in a kind of incomplete or suspended state. Thus, "The man *having finished* his letter, will carry it to the post-office." Here, the participle "having finished" contains precisely the same meaning that would have been conveyed by the expression, "when he has finished." It is the affirmation of the verb subject to some limitation, or in a state of suspense. The participles also express distinctions of *time*, which is another of the peculiar properties of the verb. Hence, they are, by almost common consent, considered parts of the verb. They partake also of the nature of the adjective, inasmuch as they are joined to a noun in construction, in the same manner as an adjective is. (See Appendix 18.)

231. The PARTICIPLES are three, the PRESENT, the PERFECT, and the COMPOUND PERFECT.

232. The PRESENT Participle denotes that which is now in progress; as, *going*, *being*, *living*, *working*, &c. The Present participles all end in *ing*.

233. The PERFECT Participle denotes that which is complete or finished; as, *written*, *stolen*, *learned*.

234. The COMPOUND PERFECT Participle denotes that which is finished before something else mentioned; as, *having written*, *having stolen*, *having learned*.

NUMBER AND PERSON.

235. Verbs have variations of form, to correspond with the number and person of their subject. These variations are called the numbers and persons of the verb. Thus:

<i>Singular.</i>		<i>Plural.</i>	
<i>First Person.</i>	I am.	<i>First Person.</i>	We are.
<i>Second Person.</i>	Thou art.	<i>Second Person.</i>	You are.
<i>Third Person.</i>	He is.	<i>Third Person.</i>	They are.

236. Verbs have two numbers, SINGULAR and PLURAL; and three persons, FIRST, SECOND, and THIRD.

Classes of Verbs.

237. Verbs are divided into the following classes: TRANSITIVE and INTRANSITIVE; REGULAR and IRREGULAR; IMPERSONAL, DEFECTIVE, and AUXILIARY.

TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS.

238. A TRANSITIVE VERB is one which requires an objective case after it; as, James *writes* a letter.

239. An INTRANSITIVE VERB is one which does not require an objective case after it; as, John *sleeps*.

NOTE.—A verb is to be parsed as transitive, whenever it is correctly used with an objective case after it; and intransitive, whenever it is correctly used without an objective case. (See Appendix 19.)

240. Many verbs are used both transitively and intransitively; as, “He reads well,” “He reads a book.”

241. Intransitive verbs are not used in the Passive Voice: thus, we may say *to laugh*, but not *to be laughed*.

242. When intransitive verbs are followed by certain prepositions, the verb and preposition sometimes form a kind of

compound verb, which is transitive, and admits of a passive voice: thus, we say *to laugh at* a person, and *to be laughed at* by him.

243. Verbs usually intransitive sometimes take after them an objective of kindred signification. In that case they are transitive, and admit of a passive voice; as, "I run a race," "A race is run."

244. Transitive verbs in English, are sometimes used without an objective case, in a sense between the active and passive voices; as, *I taste the apple; the apple is tasted by me; the apple tastes sweet.*

REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS.

245. A REGULAR VERB is one that forms its Past Tense and Perfect Participle by the addition of *d* or *ed* to its present tense; as, Present, *love*; Past, *loved*; Perfect Participle, *loved*.

246. An IRREGULAR VERB is one that does not form its Past Tense and Perfect Participle by the addition of *d* or *ed* to its present tense; as, Present, *teach*; Past, *taught*; Perfect Participle, *taught*.

LIST OF IRREGULAR VERBS.

1. Verbs having both a regular and an irregular form.

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Awake	awaked or awoke	awaked
Bereave	bereaved or bereft	bereaved or bereft
Build, Re-	buildied or built	buildied or built
Catch	catchied or caught	catchied or caught
Clothe	clothed	clothed or clad
Crow	crowed or crew	crowed
Deal	dealed or dealt	dealed or dealt
Dig	digged or dug	digged or dug
Dwell	dwelled or dwelt	dwelled or dwelt
Gild, Re-	gilded or gilt	gilded or gilt

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Gird, Un-	girded or girt	girded or girt
Grave	graved	graved or graven
Hang	hanged or hung	hanged or hung
Hew	hewed	hewed or hewn
Knit	knitted or knit	knitted or knit
Load, Re- Un-	loaded	loaded or laden
Mow	mowed	mowed or mown
Saw	sawed	sawed or sawn
Shape, Mis-	shaped	shaped or shapen
Shave	shaved	shaved or shaven
Shine	shined or shone	shined or shone
Slit	slitted or slit	slitted or slit
Sow	sowed	sowed or sown
Spill	spilled or spilt	spilled or spilt
{ Strew, Be-	strewed	strewed
{ Strow, Be-	strowed	strowed or strown
Sweat	sweated or sweat	sweated or sweat
Swell	swelled	swelled or swollen
Wax	waxed	waxed or waxen
Work	worked or wrought	worked or wrought.

2. *Verbs having all three parts alike.*

Burst	burst	burst
Cast	cast	cast
Cost	cost	cost
Cut	cut	cut
Hit	hit	hit
Hurt	hurt	hurt
Let	let	let
Put	put	put
Read	read	read
Rid	rid	rid
Shed	shed	shed
Shred	shred	shred
Shut	shut	shut
Split	split	split
Spread, Be-	spread	spread
Thrust	thrust	thrust.

3. *Verbs having the Past tense and the Perfect Participle alike.*

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Abide	abode	abode
Bend, Un-	bent	bent
Beseech	besought	besought
Bind, Un-	bound	bound
Bleed	bled	bled
Breed	bred	bred
Bring	brought	brought
Buy	bought	bought
Cling	clung	clung
Creep	crept	crept
Feed	fed	fed
Feel	felt	felt
Fight	fought	fought
Find	found	found
Fling	flung	flung
Grind	ground	ground
Have	had	had
Hear	heard	heard
Hold, Be- With-	held	held
Keep	kept	kept
Lead, Mis-	led	led
Leave	left	left
Lend	lent	lent
Lose	lost	lost
Make, Un-	made	made
Meet	met	met
Pay, Pre- Re-	paid	paid
Rend	rent	rent
Say, Un-	said	said
Seek	sought	sought
Sell, Under-	sold	sold
Send	sent	sent
Shoe	shod	shod
Shoot	shot	shot
Shrink	shrunk	shrunk
Sleep	slept	slept
Sling	slung	slung

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Slink	slunk	slunk
Speed	sped	sped
Spend, Mis-	spent	spent
Spin	spun	spun
Stand, With-	stood	stood
Stick	stuck	stuck
Sting	stung	stung
String	strung	strung
Swing	swung	swung
Teach, Mis- Un-	taught	taught
Tell	told	told
Think	thought	thought
Weep	wept	wept
Win	won	won
Wind, Un-	wound	wound
Wring	wrung	wrung.

4. *Verbs having the Present tense and the Perfect Participle alike.*

Come, Be-	came	come
Run, Out-	ran	run.

5. *Verbs having all three parts unlike.*

Am	was	been
Begin	began	begun
Blow	blew	blown
Break	broke	broken
Choose	chose	chosen
Do, Mis- Over- Out- Un- }	did	done
Draw, With-	drew	drawn
Drink	drank	drunk
Drive	drove	driven
Fall, Be-	fell	fallen
Forsake	forsook	forsaken
Freeze	froze	frozen
Give, For Mis-	gave	given
Go, Under- Fore-	went	gone

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Grow, Out-	grew	grown
Know	knew	known
Lade, Un-	laded	laden
Rise, A-	rose	risen
Rive	rived	riven
See, Fore- Over-	saw	seen
Shake	shook	shaken
Shear	sheared	shorn
Show, Fore-	showed	shown
Slay	slew	slain
Slide	slid	slidden
Smite	smote	smitten
Speak, Be-	spoke	spoken
Steal	stole	stolen
Strive	strove	striven
Swear, For-	swore	sworn
Take, Be- Mis- Re- Over- Under-	} took	taken
Tear		torn
Throw, Over-	threw	thrown
Tread	trod	trodden
Wear, Out-	wore	worn
Weave	wove	woven
Write, Re-	wrote	written.

6. *Verbs having two forms of the Past tense.*

Eat	eat or ate	eaten
Ring	rung or rang	rung
Sing	sung or sang	sung
Sink	sunk or sank	sunk
Spit	spit or spat	spit
Sprung	sprung or sprang	sprung
Stink	stunk or stank	stunk
Swim, Out	swum or swam	swum
Thrive	thrived or throve	thriven.

7. *Verbs having two forms of the Perfect Participle.*

<i>Present Tense.</i>	<i>Past Tense.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>
Beat	beat	beat or beaten
Bite	bit	bit or bitten
Chide	chid	chid or chidden
Get, Be- For-	got	got or gotten
Hide	hid	hid or hidden
Ride, Out-	rode	rode or ridden
Strike	struck	struck or stricken.

8. *Verbs having two forms both of the Past tense and Perfect Participle.*

Bid, For-Out-Under-	bid or bade	bid or bidden
Stride, Be-	strode or strid	stridden or strid.

9. *Verbs having different meanings.*

{ Bear (<i>to bring forth</i>)	bare	born
{ Bear (<i>to carry</i>), For-	bore	borne
{ Cleave (<i>to split</i>)	cleft or clove	cleft or cloven
{ Cleave (<i>to stick to</i>)	cleaved	cleaved
{ Dare (<i>to venture</i>)	durst	dared
{ Dare (<i>to challenge</i>)	dared	dared
{ Flee (<i>to hasten away</i>)	fled	fled
{ Fly (<i>to move as a bird</i>)	flew	flown
{ Lay (<i>to place</i>), Mis- Re-	laid	laid
{ Lie (<i>to lie down</i>), Over- Under-	lay	lain
{ Set (<i>to place</i>), Be- Re-	set	set
{ Sit (<i>to occupy a seat</i>)	sat	sat.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

247. An IMPERSONAL VERB is one which is never used except with the pronoun *it* for its subject; as, "It snows."

NOTE.—We never say, "I snow," "Thou snowest," "He snows," &c.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

248. A DEFECTIVE VERB is one that is not used in all the Moods and Tenses ; as, *must, ought, &c.*

AUXILIARY VERBS

249. An AUXILIARY VERB is one which helps to form the Moods and Tenses of other verbs.

250. The auxiliary verbs are, SHALL, MAY, CAN, and MUST, and sometimes BE, DO, HAVE, and WILL.

NOTE.—These are called Auxiliary, or helping verbs, because by their help the other verbs form most of their moods and tenses. (See Appendix 20.)

251. *Be, do, have,* and sometimes *will*, are also used as principal verbs ; as, they *may be* here ; they *do* nothing ; they *have* nothing ; they *will* it to be so. As principal verbs, they have all the moods and tenses which other verbs have.

252. *Be*, as an Auxiliary, is used in all its moods, tenses, numbers, and persons, in forming the passive voice of other verbs ; as, I *am* loved, I *was* loved, I *have been* loved. &c.

253. *Have, do, will, shall, may, can,* as Auxiliaries, are used in only two forms, and *must* in only one form, viz. :

Present. Have, do, will, shall, can, may, must.

Past. Had, did, would, should, could, might.

254. These forms taken by themselves may be considered as the Present and Past, but they do not always form the present and past when in combination with the other Auxiliaries or with the principal verb.

255. *Shall, may, can,* and *must* are defective, having only the tenses given above, and are never used except as Auxiliaries.

CONJUGATION.

256. The CONJUGATION of a verb is the regular arrangement of its voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.

Conjugation of the verb TO BE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I am.	1. We are.
2. Thou art.	2. You are.
3. He is.	3. They are

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I was.	1. We were.
2. Thou wast.	2. You were.
3. He was.	3. They were.

Perfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have been.	1. We have been.
2. Thou hast been.	2. You have been.
3. He has been.	3. They have been.

Pluperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I had been.	1. We had been.
2. Thou hadst been.	2. You had been.
3. He had been.	3. They had been.

First Future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I will be.	1. We will be.
2. Thou wilt be.	2. You will be.
3. He will be.	3. They will be.

Second Future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1 I will have been.	1. We will have been.
2. Thou wilt have been.	2. You will have been.
3. He will have been.	3. They will have been.

NOTE 1.—In the Future tenses, the verb has two forms, *shall* and *will*. *Shall* has *shalt* in the second person singular, but is elsewhere unchanged. In the first person, *shall* expresses simple futurity; *will* expresses a promise, or a determination.

In the second and third persons, ordinarily, *will* and *will* express simple futurity; *shall* and *shall* express an obligation, a command, or a promise.

NOTE 2.—In the third person, the nominative of the verb may be any of the personal pronouns, *he*, *she*, or *it*, any of the relative pronouns, *who*, *which*, *what*, *that*, &c., or any noun. For convenience of learning, only one nominative is inserted

EXERCISE.—Conjugate the verb “to be” through the Indicative mood, using “she” instead of “he.”

Conjugate it, using “it.”

Conjugate it, using “the man” for “he,” and “the men” for “they.”

Conjugate it in the First and Second Future tenses, using “shall” instead of “will.”

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

NOTE.—The Subjunctive Mood of the verb *To be* has two forms. The first is called the Regular form, and is continued through all the six tenses. The other is called the Subjunctive form, and is found only in the Present and Past tenses. (See Appendix 21.)

Present Tense—Regular form.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I am.	1. If we are.
2. If thou art.	2. If you are.
3. If he is.	3. If they are.

Present Tense—Subjunctive form.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I be.	1. If we be.
2. If thou be.	2. If you be.
3. If he be.	3. If they be.

Past Tense—Regular form.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. If I was.	1. If we were.
2. If thou wast.	2. If you were.
3. If he was.	3. If they were.

Past Tense—Subjunctive form.

- | <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|------------------|------------------|
| 1. If I were. | 1. If we were. |
| 2. If thou wert. | 2. If you were. |
| 3. If he were. | 3. If they were. |

Perfect Tense.

- | <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. If I have been. | 1. If we have been. |
| 2. If thou hast been. | 2. If you have been. |
| 3. If he has been. | 3. If they have been. |

Pluperfect Tense.

- | <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. If I had been. | 1. If we had been. |
| 2. If thou hadst been. | 2. If you had been. |
| 3. If he had been. | 3. If they had been. |

First Future Tense.

- | <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1. If I will be. | 1. If we will be. |
| 2. If thou wilt be. | 2. If you will be. |
| 3. If he will be. | 3. If they will be. |

Second Future Tense.

- | <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. If I will have been. | 1. If we will have been. |
| 2. If thou wilt have been. | 2. If you will have been. |
| 3. If he will have been. | 3. If they will have been. |

NOTE.—In conjugating the Subjunctive mood, the conjunction before the verb may be *if*, *though*, *although*, *unless*, *except*, *whether*, or *lest*. (See Art. 217.) For convenience in learning, only one conjunction is used.

EXERCISE.—Conjugate the verb “to be” through the Subjunctive mood, using “though” instead of “if.”

Conjugate it in like manner, using each of the other conjunctions named.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | <i>Singular.</i> | <i>Plural.</i> |
|-------------------|-----------------|
| 1. I may be. | 1. We may be. |
| 2. Thou mayst be. | 2. You may be. |
| 3. He may be. | 3. They may be. |

*Past Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------|
| 1. I might be. | 1. We might be. |
| 2. Thou mightst be. | 2. You might be. |
| 3. He might be | 3. They might be. |

*Perfect Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. I may have been. | 1. We may have been. |
| 2. Thou mayst have been. | 2. You may have been. |
| 3. He may have been. | 3. They may have been |

*Pluperfect Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I might have been. | 1. We might have been. |
| 2. Thou mightst have been. | 2. You might have been. |
| 3. He might have been. | 3. They might have been. |

NOTE.—In the Potential mood the auxiliary may be,

In the Present tense, *may*, *can*, or *must*.

In the Past tense, *might*, *could*, *would*, or *should*.

In the Perfect tense, *may have*, *can have*, or *must have*.

In the Pluperfect tense, *might have*, *could have*, *would have*, or *should have*.

EXERCISE.—Conjugate the verb in the Present tense, using “can” instead of “may.”

Conjugate it, using “must.”

Conjugate it in the Past tense, using “could;” using “would;” using “should.”

Conjugate it in the Perfect tense, using “can have;” using “must have.”

Conjugate it in the Pluperfect tense, using “could have;” using “would have;” using “should have.”

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|--------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Be, or be thou. | 1. Be, or be you. |
|--------------------|-------------------|

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being.*Past.* Been.*Perfect.* Having been.

Conjugation of the verb To LOVE.

ACTIVE VOICE.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I love.	1. We love.
2. Thou lovest.	2. You love.
3. He loves.	3. They love.

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I loved.	1. We loved.
2. Thou lovedst.	2. You loved.
3. He loved.	3. They loved.

Perfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I have loved.	1. We have loved.
2. Thou hast loved.	2. You have loved.
3. He has loved.	3. They have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I had loved.	1. We had loved.
2. Thou hadst loved.	2. You had loved.
3. He had loved.	3. They had loved.

First Future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I will love.	1. We will love.
2. Thou wilt love.	2. You will love.
3. He will love.	3. They will love.

Second Future Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I will have loved.	1. We will have loved.
2. Thou wilt have loved.	2. You will have loved.
3. He will have loved.	3. They will have loved.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

NOTE.—In the Active voice, the Subjunctive Mood has two forms in the Present tense only.

*Present Tense—Regular form.**Singular.*

1. If I love.
2. If thou lovest.
3. If he loves.

Plural.

1. If we love.
2. If you love.
3. If they love.

*Present Tense—Subjunctive form.**Singular.*

1. If I love.
2. If thou love.
3. If he love.

Plural.

1. If we love.
2. If you love.
3. If they love.

*Past Tense.**Singular.*

1. If I loved.
2. If thou lovedst.
3. If he loved.

Plural.

1. If we loved.
2. If you loved.
3. If they loved.

*Perfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. If I have loved.
2. If thou hast loved.
3. If he has loved.

Plural.

1. If we have loved.
2. If you have loved.
3. If they have loved.

*Pluperfect Tense.**Singular.*

1. If I had loved.
2. If thou hadst loved.
3. If he had loved.

Plural.

1. If we had loved.
2. If you had loved.
3. If they had loved.

*First Future Tense.**Singular.*

1. If I will love.
2. If thou wilt love.
3. If he will love.

Plural.

1. If we will love.
2. If you will love.
3. If they will love.

*Second Future Tense.**Singular.*

1. If I will have loved.
2. If thou wilt have loved.
3. If he will have loved.

Plural.

1. If we will have loved.
2. If you will have loved.
3. If they will have loved.

POTENTIAL MOOD.

Present Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I may love.	1. We may love.
2. Thou mayst love.	2. You may love.
3. He may love.	3. They may love.

Past Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I might love.	1. We might love.
2. Thou mightst love.	2. You might love.
3. He might love.	3. They might love.

Perfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I may have loved.	1. We may have loved.
2. Thou mayst have loved.	2. You may have loved.
3. He may have loved.	3. They may have loved.

Pluperfect Tense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
1. I might have loved.	1. We might have loved.
2. Thou mightst have loved.	2. You might have loved.
3. He might have loved.	3. They might have loved.

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Sense.

<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
Love, or love thou.	Love, or love you.

INFINITIVE MOOD.

<i>Present.</i> To love.	<i>Perfect.</i> To have loved.
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PARTICIPLES.

<i>Present.</i> Loving.	<i>Perfect.</i> Loved.
<i>Compound Perfect.</i> Having loved.	

PASSIVE VOICE.

NOTE.—The PASSIVE VOICE of a verb is formed by placing before its Perfect Participle the various moods, tenses, numbers, and persons of the verb *To be*.

Intransitive Verbs have no Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|--------------------|--------------------|
| 1. I am loved. | 1. We are loved. |
| 2. Thou art loved. | 2. You are loved. |
| 3. He is loved. | 3. They are loved. |

*Past Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| 1. I was loved. | 1. We were loved. |
| 2. Thou wast loved. | 2. You were loved. |
| 3. He was loved. | 3. They were loved. |

*Perfect Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. I have been loved. | 1. We have been loved. |
| 2. Thou hast been loved. | 2. You have been loved. |
| 3. He has been loved. | 3. They have been loved. |

*Pluperfect Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I had been loved. | 1. We had been loved. |
| 2. Thou hadst been loved. | 2. You had been loved. |
| 3. He had been loved. | 3. They had been loved. |

*First Future Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. I will be loved. | 1. We will be loved. |
| 2. Thou wilt be loved. | 2. You will be loved. |
| 3. He will be loved. | 3. They will be loved. |

*Second Future Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. I will have been loved. | 1. We will have been loved. |
| 2. Thou wilt have been loved. | 2. You will have been loved. |
| 3. He will have been loved. | 3. They will have been loved. |

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

NOTE.—In the Passive voice, the Subjunctive Mood has two forms, both for the Present tense and the Past.

Present Tense—Regular form.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. If I am loved. | 1. If we are loved. |
| 2. If thou art loved. | 2. If you are loved. |
| 3. If he is loved. | 3. If they are loved. |

Present Tense—Subjunctive form.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. If I be loved. | 1. If we be loved. |
| 2. If thou be loved. | 2. If you be loved. |
| 3. If he be loved. | 3. If they be loved. |

Past Tense—Regular form.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. If I was loved. | 1. If we were loved. |
| 2. If thou wast loved. | 2. If you were loved. |
| 3. If he was loved. | 3. If they were loved. |

Past Tense—Subjunctive form.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. If I were loved. | 1. If we were loved. |
| 2. If thou wert loved. | 2. If you were loved. |
| 3. If he were loved. | 3. If they were loved. |

Perfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. If I have been loved. | 1. If we have been loved. |
| 2. If thou hast been loved. | 2. If you have been loved. |
| 3. If he has been loved. | 3. If they have been loved. |

Pluperfect Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. If I had been loved. | 1. If we had been loved. |
| 2. If thou hadst been loved. | 2. If you had been loved. |
| 3. If he had been loved. | 3. If they had been loved. |

First Future Tense.

Singular.

Plural.

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. If I will be loved. | 1. If we will be loved. |
| 2. If thou wilt be loved. | 2. If you will be loved. |
| 3. If he will be loved. | 3. If they will be loved. |

*Second Future Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|----------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. If I will have been loved. | 1. If we will have been loved. |
| 2. If thou wilt have been loved. | 2. If you will have been loved. |
| 3. If he will have been loved. | 3. If they will have been loved. |

POTENTIAL MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. I may be loved. | 1. We may be loved. |
| 2. Thou mayst be loved. | 2. You may be loved. |
| 3. He may be loved. | 3. They may be loved. |

*Past Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1. I might be loved. | 1. We might be loved. |
| 2. Thou mightst be loved. | 2. You might be loved. |
| 3. He might be loved. | 3. They might be loved. |

*Perfect Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|--------------------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. I may have been loved. | 1. We may have been loved. |
| 2. Thou mayst have been loved. | 2. You may have been loved. |
| 3. He may have been loved. | 3. They may have been loved. |

*Pluperfect Tense.**Singular.**Plural.*

- | | |
|----------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. I might have been loved. | 1. We might have been loved. |
| 2. Thou mightst have been loved. | 2. You might have been loved. |
| 3. He might have been loved. | 3. They might have been loved. |

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 2. Be loved, <i>or</i> be thou loved. | 2. Be loved, <i>or</i> be you loved. |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|

INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present. To be loved. -*Perfect.* To have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Present. Being loved.*Perfect.* Loved.*Compound Perfect.* Having been loved.

THE PROGRESSIVE FORM.

257. The PROGRESSIVE FORM of a verb is that which represents the action as in progress, or as incomplete.

258. The Progressive form of any verb is made by placing before its Present Participle the various moods, tenses, numbers, and persons of the verb *to be*.

NOTE.—This is sometimes called the Progressive form, as above, because it represents the action as still in progress; sometimes, the Imperfect form, because action in progress is necessarily incomplete; and sometimes the Definite form, because it marks the time of the action in every case with perfect definiteness and precision.

Exercises in the Progressive Form.

Conjugate the verb “sing” through all the tenses of the Indicative mood, in the Progressive form.

Conjugate “know” through the Subjunctive mood, Progressive form.

Conjugate “write” through the Potential mood, Progressive form.

Conjugate “stand” through the Imperative and Infinitive moods, Progressive form.

REMARK.—A verb in the Progressive form is always in the Active voice.

EMPHATIC FORM.

259. The EMPHATIC FORM of a verb is that in which the assertion is expressed with emphasis.

260. The Emphatic Form is used only in the Present and Past tenses of the Indicative and the Subjunctive moods, Active voice, and in the Imperative mood, both Active and Passive.

261. The Emphatic Form of a verb is made by placing before it the verb *do* as an auxiliary.

Conjugation of the verb To LOVE, in the Emphatic Form.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense.**Singular.*

1. I do love.
2. Thou dost love.
3. He does love.

Plural.

1. We do love.
2. You do love.
3. They do love.

*Past Tense.**Singular.*

1. I did love.
2. Thou didst love.
3. He did love.

Plural.

1. We did love.
2. You did love.
3. They did love.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

*Present Tense—Regular form.**Singular.*

1. If I do love.
2. If thou dost love.
3. If he does love.

Plural.

1. If we do love.
2. If you do love.
3. If they do love.

*Present Tense—Subjunctive form.**Singular.*

1. If I do love.
2. If thou do love.
3. If he do love.

Plural.

1. If we do love.
2. If you do love.
3. If they do love.

*Past Tense.**Singular.*

1. If I did love.
2. If thou didst love.
3. If he did love.

Plural.

1. If we did love.
2. If you did love.
3. If they did love.

IMPERATIVE.

Active—Present Tense.

Singular. Do (thou) love. *Plural.* Do (you) love.

Passive—Present Tense.

Singular. Do (thou) be loved. *Plural.* Do (you) be loved.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE FORM OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

262. When the Subjunctive mood expresses only uncertainty, contingency, or doubt, the Regular Form is used. Thus, "If thou *livest* virtuously, thou doest well."

263. When, in the present tense, the Subjunctive mood expresses not only uncertainty, contingency, or doubt, but also *future time*, the Subjunctive Form should be used. Thus, "If he *continue* impenitent, he will perish." The accompanying verb "*will* perish," being in the future tense, shows that the meaning of "*continue*" is future, although its form is that of the present. It is probably only an abbreviation for "*should continue*."

264. When, in the past tense, the Subjunctive of the passive voice, or the Subjunctive of the verb *to be*, expresses not only uncertainty, contingency, or doubt, but also *present time*, the Subjunctive Form should be used. Thus, "If he *were* less admired, he would be more beloved;" "If he *were* here, he would do it immediately."

265. *Lest* and *that*, following the imperative, require the Subjunctive Form; as, "Love not sleep, lest thou *come* to poverty."

PARSING EXERCISES.

Sentence.—"James *writes* a letter." Parse "*writes*."

MODEL.—"Writes" (1.) is a verb, it contains an assertion; (2.) transitive, it requires an objective case after it; (3.) irregular, it does not form its past tense and perfect participle by the addition of *d* or *ed* (Pres. write, Past, wrote, Perf. P. written); (4.) active voice, it denotes that the nominative "James" acts or does the thing mentioned; (5.) indicative mood, the assertion is expressed directly and without limitation; (6.) present tense, it denotes present time; (7.) third person, singular number (I write, thou writest, he writes, or James writes).

ABBREVIATED MODEL.—"Writes" is (1.) a verb, (2.) transitive, (3.) irregular (write, wrote, written), (4.) active voice, (5.) indicative mood, (6.) present tense, (7.) third person, singular number.

EXERCISES.—Parse all the Verbs in the following sentences:

A witty punster may afford amusement to persons, but amusement is not the business of life, though it tend ever so much to relieve the mind. Therefore, do not consider him a model worthy of imitation.

My son, wert thou a father, thou couldst understand the feelings of him who now mourns over the wrong which thou hast committed. Had I been thy son, I think I would not only have been grieved on account of that which I had done, but also would have regretted that I had caused sorrow in the breast of him, who loved me so tenderly.

The miser will will his property to those who will perhaps use it for sinful purposes. Had he had less avarice, his happiness would have been increased. Do not do as he does, lest thou, like him, become a wretched man, and have to say, "I have been heaping up riches all my life, but I have not been increasing my happiness. Had I been adding to the happiness of others, and laying up treasures where moth and rust do not corrupt, I would have been employing myself better and saving my soul."

If a man smite his servant, and he die, he shall surely be put to death.

If he acquire riches they will corrupt his mind.

Though he is high, he hath respect to the lowly.

Despise not any condition, lest it happen to be thine own.

Take care that thou break not any of the established rules.

"Is there—is there balm in Gilead? tell me, I implore!"

Quoth the raven, "Never more."

ADVERBS.

266. An ADVERB is a word used to qualify a Verb, an Adjective, or another Adverb; as, He writes *rapidly*.

267. Adverbs are not necessary parts of speech, as their meaning can always be expressed by other parts of speech. They generally express in one word what would otherwise

require several. *Here*, for instance, means “in this place;” *now* means “at this time,” &c.

268. Some of the adverbs appear to be formed by the combination of two or more words, which have gradually coalesced into one. Thus, *bravely* is an abbreviation of *brave-like*, *wisely* of *wise-like*, *happily* of *happy-like*, &c. Others again are composed of nouns, and the letter *a* used for *at*, *on*, &c.; as, *aside*, *ahead*, *aboard*, *ashore*, *aground*, *afloat*. The composition of others is still more apparent; as, *hereof*, *thereof*, *hereby*, &c.

269. Sometimes several words are taken together and called an adverbial phrase; as, *at length*, *in vain*, &c. These expressions are elliptical, and the ellipsis can almost always be supplied. Whenever this can be done, the words should be parsed separately.

270. Some adverbs perform at the same time the office of adverbs and of conjunctions; as, “They will come *when* they are ready.” Here, “*when*” both declares the time of the action, and so is an adverb; and also connects the two verbs, and so is a conjunction. These are called by some grammarians, conjunctive adverbs; by others, adverbial conjunctions. The most common of them are, *when*, *where*, *whither*, *whenever*, *wherever*, *then*, &c.

271. The adverb *there* is often used as a mere expletive, apparently without any signification of its own, as in this sentence, “*There* was a man sent from God, whose name was John.”

272. Some words are used sometimes as adverbs, and sometimes as adjectives. Among these are the following: *little*, *less*, *least*, *better*, *best*, *much*, *more*, *most*, *no*, *only*, *well*, *ill*, *still*, *first*. If any of these words qualifies a noun, it is an adjective; but, if it qualifies a verb, adjective, or other adverb, then it is an adverb.

Comparison of Adverbs.

273. Many Adverbs are compared, as Adjectives are.

274. Some Adverbs are compared by adding *er* and *est* to the Positive; as, *soon*, *sooner*, *soonest*.

275. Adverbs ending in *ly* are compared by prefixing *more* and *most*, *less* and *least*; as, happily, *more* happily, *most* happily; *less* happily, *least* happily.

276. The following are compared irregularly:

Irregular Comparison.

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
Well	better	best
Ill	worse	worst
Badly	worse	worst
Much	more	most
Far	farther	farthest.

Classes of Verbs.

277. Adverbs are divided into classes, according to their signification. The most important of these classes are

1. ADVERBS OF MANNER OR QUALITY; as, well, ill, swiftly, smoothly, truly, with a great many others formed from adjectives by adding the termination *ly*. This is by far the most numerous class of adverbs.

2. ADVERBS OF PLACE; as, here, there, where, hither, thither, whither, hence, thence, whence, somewhere, nowhere, &c.

3. ADVERBS OF TIME; as, now, then, when, ever, never, soon, often, seldom, lately, &c.

4. ADVERBS OF QUANTITY; as, much, little, sufficiently, enough, scarcely, &c.

5. ADVERBS OF DIRECTION; as, downward, upward, forward, backward, homeward, heavenward, hitherward, thitherward, &c.

6. ADVERBS OF NUMBER, ORDER, &c. (including all those formed from the Numeral Adjectives); as, first, secondly, thirdly, &c.; once, twice, thrice, &c.; singly, doubly, triply, &c.

7. ADVERBS OF AFFIRMATION and NEGATION; as, yes, no, verily, indeed, nay, nowise, doubtless, &c.

8. ADVERBS OF INTERROGATION; as, how, why, when, where, whither, whence, &c.

9. ADVERBS OF COMPARISON; as, more, most, less, least, better, best, very, exceedingly, nearly, almost, &c.

10. ADVERBS OF UNCERTAINTY; as, perchance, perhaps, peradventure.

NOTE.—The above is not intended as a complete list of Adverbs, nor even a complete classification of them.

PARSING EXERCISES.—Sentence.—“John wrote the letter *hastily*.”

MODEL.—“*Hastily*” (1.) is an adverb, it qualifies the verb “wrote;” (2.) it is an adverb of *manner*, it tells the manner in which he wrote; (3.) it is compared, *hastily*, *more hastily*, *most hastily*.

NOTE.—When the adverb does not admit of comparison, the third thing to say of it will be, “not compared.”

Parse all the Adverbs in the following sentences :

There was no orator who spoke more fluently. Thrice was he applauded. Turn your eye whither you would, you might see persons attentively listening. Seldom was such an attentive multitude assembled in our much too quiet village.

When the water was hot enough, he boiled the herbs in it thoroughly and made the tea sufficiently strong.

This idle boy was the least attentive of the scholars, and studied least. He therefore received the least amount of benefit. Better boys will behave better and reap a better reward.

Parse all the Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, and Verbs in the foregoing sentences.

CONJUNCTIONS.

278. A CONJUNCTION is a word used to connect words and sentences; as, John *and* James study; John writes *and* James reads. (Appendix 22.)

279. The following are the principal Conjunctions: and, as, also, because, both, for, if, since, that, then, therefore, wherefore, or, nor, either, neither, but, yet, than, lest, though, although, unless, whether, &c.

PARSING EXERCISES.

FIRST MODEL.—“John *and* James are brothers.” “And” is a conjunction, it connects the noun “John” with the noun “James.”

NOTE.—When conjunctions connect words, those words will be the same parts of speech, that is a verb and a verb, an adjective and an adjective, &c., except that nouns and pronouns may be connected by a conjunction.

SECOND MODEL.—“John studies his lesson carefully, *but* James is very negligent of his lesson.” “But” is a conjunction, it connects the sentence “John studies his lesson carefully,” with the sentence “James is very negligent of his lesson.”

Parse each of the Conjunctions in the following sentences :

Unless a man lacks virtue, whether he is humble in rank or poor in purse, he is worthy of respect and esteem. Yet there are some who, notwithstanding their wealth and the advantages of fortune, are deemed respectable, though their vicious habits should subject them to contempt. These shun the virtuous poor, lest they might degrade themselves in their own estimation. But they forget that they might be improved by intercourse with their virtuous but poor brethren.

Insert proper conjunctions in the following sentences :

I shall need an umbrella, — it rain to-morrow ; — — it is a clear day, I shall not need it, — I never use it to protect me from the sun — snow.

The colonel remained at his post, — he was nearly fainting from the loss of blood — the pain of his wounds. He declared — no one else should stand by the flag ; he would protect it, while he had life — strength left. Faithfully — heroically he kept his word.

REVIEW EXERCISE.—Parse each of the Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, and Adverbs in the foregoing sentences.

PREPOSITIONS.

280. A PREPOSITION is a word placed before a noun to show its relation to some other word ; as, I write *with* a pen.

NOTE.—*With*, in this example, shows the relation of *pen* to the word *write*; it connects the *act* and the *instrument*, and shows the relation between them. Prepositions and Conjunctions are both connecting words, and are intimately related.

281. Some of the Prepositions are original and uncompounded words. These are the most important, and should be thoroughly committed to memory. Nearly all of them refer in some way to place or position.

282. The Simple Prepositions are nineteen ; viz., at, after, by, down, for, from, in, of, on, over, past, round, since, through, till, to, under, up, with.

NOTE.—*After* is supposed to be the comparative of *aft*. Doubts have been raised in regard to the true character of *past*.

283. The prefix *a*, which occurs in so many English compounds, represents a variety of small words, such as *at*, *of*, *in*, *on*, *to*, &c. In the compound prepositions in which this occurs, it generally represents *on* or *in*. The other part of the compound is some noun, adjective, adverb, or other preposition.

284. The Prepositions formed by prefixing *a* (*on* or *in*), are as follows : *above*, *about*, *across*, *against*, *along*, *amid* or *amidst*, *among* or *amongst*, *around*, *athwart*.

285. Several Prepositions are formed in like manner by prefixing *be* (*by*) to various nouns, adjectives, adverbs, &c.

286. The Prepositions formed by prefixing *be* are : *before*, *behind*, *below*, *beneath*, *beside* or *besides*, *between* or *betwixt*, *beyond*.

287. Several Compound Prepositions are formed by uniting without change two prepositions, or a preposition and an adverb. These are : *upon*, *toward*, *towards*, *unto*, *into*, *within*, *without*, *throughout*, *underneath*.

288. *According to*, *instead of*, and *out of*, are sometimes inserted among the compound prepositions. But there is no necessity of such a course. The words are written separately; and may all be parsed separately. *According* is an adjective or participle, and always belongs to some noun expressed or understood. *Instead* is simply *in stead*. *Out* is either an adverb or an adjective, according to circumstances.

289. *Bating*, *concerning*, *during*, *excepting*, *regarding*, *respecting*, *touching*, though participles, strictly speaking, frequently have the construction of prepositions and may be so parsed.

290. There is no more reason for considering *near* and *nigh* prepositions than for considering *like* one. The preposition *to* is understood in all such cases; thus, "like (to) a man," "near (to) the city," "nigh (to) the river." An ellipsis of *from* after the adverb *off* has in like manner caused the latter word sometimes to be inserted incorrectly among the prepositions. Ex. "off (from) his horse."

PARSING EXERCISES.—MODEL.—"John walks *on* the roof." "On" is a preposition, it is placed before the noun "roof;" and it shows a relation between "roof" and "walks," it tells on what he walks.

Parse each of the Prepositions in the following sentences :

In the morning of a sunny Sabbath day, the village children, with happy faces, were on their way to the house of God. The sun that looked down from above upon them, the blue sky over them, and the flowery earth beneath their feet, were not more brilliant than the glance of their eyes. Hand in hand they went along the path leading to the church, with praise upon their tongues, and gratitude reigning within their hearts.

REVIEW EXERCISE.—Parse each of the Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, and Conjunctions in the foregoing sentences.

INTERJECTIONS.

291. An INTERJECTION is a word used in making sudden exclamations; as, *oh! ah!*

292. The principal Interjections are, adieu, ah, alas, alack, aha, begone, hark, ho, ha, he, hail, halloo, hum, hush, hist, huzza, lo, O, oh, pshaw, see, &c.

293. Some of the words usually called interjections are other parts of speech, and may be parsed accordingly; as, *behold*, a verb in the imperative; *strange!* an ellipsis for *it is strange*, &c. When the words are not resolvable in this way, but are mere exclamations (and these are the only true interjections), it seems doubtful whether they ought to be considered as a part of speech, any more than the barking of a dog or the mere noise of any other animal.

GENERAL PARSING EXERCISE.

Parse each of the words in the following sentences:

Benjamin West's aptitude for drawing, exhibited in his boyhood, was extraordinary. No restraint could check it. When, in later years, he was painting Death on the Pale Horse, Garrick the actor asked him "if he should die for him," meaning, "Shall I imitate a dying man?" "O! no," replied West, thinking apparently that Garrick wished to do him a great service, or intended to show a great affection for him or a great admiration of his genius, by actually dying.

WORDS USED AS DIFFERENT PARTS OF SPEECH.

THAT is a Relative Pronoun, when *who*, *whom*, or *which* may be used in its place. Ex. He is the wisest man *that* lives in our village.

THAT is a Demonstrative Adjective Pronoun, when *the* may be used instead of it. Ex. "*That* house which I see," means "*the* house which I see."

THAT is a Conjunction in all other cases. Ex. He wears warm clothes *that* he may not catch cold. Here, *who*, *whom*, *which*, or *the*, could not be used for *that*.

BUT is a Preposition, when it means *except*. Ex. He lost all his books *but* (except) his dictionary.

BUT is an Adverb, when it means *only*. Ex. I *but* (only) touched him and he cried.

BUT is a Conjunction in all other instances.

EITHER is a Distributive Adjective Pronoun, when it means *one of the two*. Ex. *Either* of the boys may do it.

EITHER is a Conjunction in all other cases.

NEITHER is a Distributive Adjective Pronoun, when it means *not one of the two*.

NEITHER is a Conjunction in all other cases.

BOTH is an Adjective, when it means *the two*. Ex. *Both* shoes need mending.

BOTH is a Conjunction in all other cases. Ex. I *both* love and respect him.

FOR is a Conjunction, when it means *because*, and is used in giving a reason. Ex. I obey him, *for* he is my father. The reason for the obedience is, *He* is my father.

FOR is a Preposition in all other cases.

As, meaning *because*, or *since*, is a Conjunction. Ex. *As* the wind was favorable, we set sail.

As, in all other cases, is an Adverb.

WHILE, meaning *to pass* or *spend* (time), is a Verb. Ex. They managed to *while* away the hour very pleasantly.

WHILE, meaning *a portion of time*, is a Noun. Ex. Let us sing a *while*.

WHILE, meaning *during the time that*, is an Adverb. Ex. The act was done *while* I was absent.

BEFORE, AFTER, TILL, and UNTIL, when followed by a noun or pronoun in the objective case, are Prepositions. Ex.:

Come *before* dinner.

Come *after* dinner.

Wait *till* midnight.

Wait *until* your turn.

BEFORE, AFTER, TILL, and UNTIL, when not followed by a noun or pronoun in the objective case, are Adverbs. Ex.:

Come *before* I have dined.

Come *after* I have dined.

Wait *till* I have dined.

Wait *until* I have dined.

WHAT is a Compound Relative, when *that which* or *those which* can be used in its stead. Ex. Eat *what* is set before you. That is, Eat *that which* is set before you.

WHAT is an Interrogative Pronoun, when used to ask a question. Ex. *What* do you see?

WHAT is an Adjective Pronoun, when joined with a noun, and meaning *how great*. Ex. *What* wonders he performed.

WHAT is an Adjective Pronoun and a Relative at the same time, when joined to a noun, and equivalent to *that which* or *those which*. Ex. He gave *what* money he had to the poor. That is, he gave *that* money *which* he had.

WHAT, when uttered as a mere exclamation, and to denote surprise, is an Interjection. Ex. *What!* abuse your mother!

THEN, meaning *in that case*, or *therefore*, is a Conjunction. Ex. If all this be so, *then* I am right.

THEN, in all other instances, is an Adverb.

SINCE, meaning *for the reason that*, is a Conjunction. Ex. *Since* it is your wish, I will certainly do it.

SINCE, when placed before a noun denoting a period of time, is a Preposition. Ex. I have had no food *since* Monday.

SINCE, in other cases, is an Adverb.

YET, meaning *nevertheless*, *notwithstanding*, is a Conjunction. Ex. Though he slay me, *yet* will I trust in him.

YET, meaning *up to a certain time*, or *over and above*, is an Adverb. Ex. Has the boy come *yet*?

I will give you *yet* one more reason.

DERIVATION OF WORDS.

294. By the Derivation of words is meant tracing them to their original form and meaning. (Appendix 23.)

295. A *Primitive* word is a word in its original form; as, *good*.

296. A *Derivative* word is a word formed from another by some change in its termination, or by the addition of some letters at the beginning or end of the word; as, *goodness*. When the additional letters make by themselves an entire word, the word formed is generally called a *compound*; as, *landlord*.

297. A letter or syllable placed at the beginning of a word, is called a *prefix*.

298. A letter or syllable placed at the end of a word, is called an *affix* or *suffix*.

299. The PREFIXES are generally prepositions, and belong to three principal classes, viz., the Saxon, the Latin, and the Greek.

PREFIXES OF SAXON ORIGIN.

A signifies *on* or *in*; as, *ashore*, that is, *on* shore.

Be signifies *about*; as, *bestir*, that is, stir about; also, *for* or *before*; as, *bespeak*, that is, to speak *for* or *before*. It has also several other meanings.

For denies; as, *bid*, *forbid* (bid not to do a thing).

Fore signifies *before*; as, see, *foresee*.

Mis signifies *defect* or *error*; as, take, *mistake* (take in a wrong way).

Over denotes *superiority* or *excess*; as, done, *overdone* (done to excess).

Out signifies *excess* or *superiority*; as, run, *outrun*.

Un before an adjective, signifies *not*; as, worthy, *unworthy*; before a verb it signifies the undoing of the act expressed by the verb; as, tie, *untie*.

Up denotes *motion upward*; as, start, *upstart*; and also, *subversion*; as, set, *upset*.

With signifies *against*, *from*; as, stand, *withstand*; draw, *withdraw*.

PREFIXES OF LATIN ORIGIN.

A (*ab* or *abs*) signifies *from* or *away*; as, *abstract*, to draw away.

Ad, signifies *to*, *at*; as, *adjoin*, to join to (*Ad* assumes different forms according to the first letter of the root to which it is prefixed; as, *ascend*, *accede*, *affect*, *aggrieve*, &c.).

Ambi from *ambo*, both, signifies *double*; as, *ambiguous* (having two meanings).

Ante signifies *before*; thus, *antediluvian*, before the flood.

Bene signifies *good*, *well*; as, *benevolent*, well disposed.

Bi or *bis* means *two* or *twice*; as, *bisect*, to cut into two parts.

Circum signifies *round*, *about*; as, *circumnavigate*, to sail round.

Cis signifies *on this side*; as, *cis-alpine*, on this side the Alps.

Con (*com*, *co*, or *col*) signifies *together*; as, *convoke*, to call together.

Contra (*counter*, *contro*) signifies *against*; as, *contradict*, to speak against; *counteract*, to act against.

De signifies *of*, *from*, or *down*; as, *dethrone*, to drive from the throne.

Di (*dis*, *dif*) signifies *asunder*; as, *distract*, to draw asunder. It also signifies *negation* or *undoing*; as, *disobey*, not to obey.

E (*ex*) signifies *out of*; as, *elect*, to choose out of.

Equi signifies *equal*; as, *equidistant*, at an equal distance.

Extra signifies *out of*, *beyond*; as, *extraordinary*, beyond the ordinary course.

In, before an adjective, serves as a negative; as, *active*, *inactive*; before a verb, *in* signifies *in* or *into*; as, *include*, to close in.

Inter signifies *between*; as, *intervene*, to come between.

Intro signifies *to*, *within*; as, *introduce*, to lead in.

Juxta signifies *nigh to*; as, *juxtaposition*, placed near to.

Mal or *male* (from *malus*, bad) signifies *ill* or *bad*; as, *mal-practice*, bad practice.

Manu (from *manus*, a hand) signifies *with* or *by the hand*; as, *manuscript*, anything written by the hand.

Multi signifies *many*; as, *multiform*, having many forms.

Ob (*oc, of, o, op*) signifies *opposition*; as, *obstacle*, something standing in *opposition*.

Omni signifies *all*; as, *omnipotent*, all powerful.

Per signifies *through* or *thoroughly*; as, *perfect*, thoroughly done, finished.

Post signifies *after*; as, *postscript*, written after.

Præ or *pre* signifies *before*; as, *prepaid*, paid before.

Pro signifies *forth* or *forwards*; as, *promote*, to move forwards.

Præter or *preter* signifies *past* or *beyond*; as, *preternatural*, beyond the course of nature.

Re signifies *again* or *back*; as, *regain*, to gain back.

Retro signifies *backwards*; as, *retrograde*, going backwards.

Se signifies *apart* or *without*; as, *secrete*, to hide, to put aside.

Sine signifies *without*; as, *sinecure*, without care or labor.

Sub signifies *under*; as, *submarine*, under the sea.

Super signifies *above* or *over*; as, *superscribe*, to write above or over.

Trans signifies *over*, *from one place to another*; as, *transport*, to carry over.

PREFIXES OF GREEK ORIGIN.

A or *an* signifies *privation* or *without*; as, *anonymous*, without a name.

Amphi signifies *both* or *the two*; as, *amphibious*, having two lives, or capable of living both on land and in water.

Ana signifies *through* or *up*; as, *anatomy*, (literally) a cutting up.

Anti (*ant*) signifies *against*; as, *antichristian*, against Christianity; *antarctic*, opposite the arctic.

Apo (*ap*) signifies *from*; as, *apogee*, from the earth; *aphelion*, from the sun.

Dia signifies *through*; as, *diameter*, a measure through.

Epi signifies *upon*; as, *epidemic*, upon or among the people.

Hyper signifies *over*, *above*; as, *hypercritical*, over critical, too critical.

Hypo signifies *under*, implying *concealment*; as, *hypocrite*, a person concealing his real character.

Meta signifies *change, transmutation*; as, *metamorphosis*, a change of shape.

Mono signifies *single*; as, *monosyllable*, a word of one syllable.

Para signifies *beyond, on one side*; as, *paradox*, an opinion beyond or contrary to the general opinion.

Peri signifies *round or about*; as, *perimeter*, a measure round.

Poly signifies *many*; as, *polysyllable*, a word of many syllables.

Semi (*demi, hemi*) signifies *half*; as, *semicircle*, half of a circle; *hemisphere*, half of a sphere.

Syn (*sy, syl, sym*) signifies *with, together*; as, *sympathy*, feeling with.

AFFIXES.

300. The AFFIXES are very numerous, and cannot always be traced satisfactorily to their origin. They are generally classified according to their signification. The following are the principal classes.

301. Affixes denoting the *agent* or *doer*:

<i>an</i> , as in guardian.	<i>ent</i> , as in adherent.
<i>ant</i> , assistant.	<i>er</i> , baker.
<i>ar</i> , beggar.	<i>ist</i> , conformist.
<i>ard</i> , dotard.	<i>ive</i> , operative.
<i>ary</i> , adversary.	<i>or</i> , inspector.
<i>eer</i> , charioteer.	<i>ster</i> , punster.

302. Affixes denoting the person *acted upon*:

<i>ate</i> , as in potentate.	<i>ite</i> , as in favorite.
<i>ee</i> , assignee.	

303. Affixes denoting *being* or *state of being*:

<i>acy</i> , as in piracy.	<i>ment</i> , as in achievement.
<i>age</i> , bondage.	<i>mony</i> , acrimony.
<i>ance</i> , repentance.	<i>ness</i> , acuteness.
<i>ancy</i> , fragranc ^y .	<i>ry</i> , rivalry.
<i>ence</i> , adherence.	<i>ship</i> , friendship.
<i>ency</i> , emergency.	<i>th</i> , depth.
<i>hood</i> , boyhood.	<i>tude</i> , aptitude.
<i>ion</i> , exhaustion.	<i>ty</i> , loyalty.
<i>ism</i> , despotism.	<i>ure</i> , disclosure.

304. Affixes denoting *jurisdiction* :

<i>dom</i> , as in <i>kingdom</i> .	<i>ric</i> , as in <i>bishopric</i> .
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305. Affixes denoting *diminution* :

<i>cle</i> , as in <i>corpuscle</i> .	<i>ling</i> , as in <i>duckling</i> .
<i>kin</i> , <i>lambkin</i> .	<i>ock</i> , <i>hillock</i> .
<i>let</i> , <i>streamlet</i> .	

306. Affixes denoting *of* or *pertaining to* :

<i>ac</i> , as in <i>elegiac</i> .	<i>ic</i> , as in <i>angelic</i> .
<i>al</i> , <i>autumnal</i> .	<i>ical</i> , <i>canonical</i> .
<i>an</i> , <i>republican</i> .	<i>ile</i> , <i>infantile</i> .
<i>ar</i> , <i>consular</i> .	<i>ine</i> , <i>adamantine</i> .
<i>ary</i> , <i>momentary</i> .	<i>ory</i> , <i>expiatory</i> .
<i>en</i> , <i>wooden</i> .	

307. Affixes denoting *full of* :

<i>ate</i> , as in <i>affectionate</i> .	<i>ous</i> , as in <i>hazardous</i> .
<i>ful</i> , <i>hopeful</i> .	<i>some</i> , <i>gladsome</i> .
<i>ose</i> , <i>globose</i> .	<i>y</i> , <i>pithy</i> .

308. Affixes denoting *capacity* :

<i>ive</i> , as in <i>communicative</i> .	<i>ible</i> , as in <i>contemptible</i> .
<i>able</i> , <i>profitable</i> .	

309. Affixes denoting *to make* :

<i>ate</i> , as in <i>alienate</i> .	<i>ise</i> , as in <i>epitomise</i> .
<i>en</i> , <i>brighten</i> .	<i>ize</i> , <i>methodize</i> .
<i>fy</i> , <i>justify</i> .	

310. *Miscellaneous* affixes :

<i>like</i> signifies likeness, as in	<i>saintlike</i> .
<i>ly</i> " " "	<i>maidenly</i> .
<i>ish</i> " small degree of anything, as in	<i>blackish</i> .
<i>less</i> " negation,	" <i>artless</i> .
<i>ward</i> " in the direction of,	" <i>homeward</i> .

THIRD PART.

SYNTAX.

311. The third part of Grammar is called SYNTAX.

312. SYNTAX treats of SENTENCES.

313. A SENTENCE is a number of words making a complete sense; as, *Man is mortal*.

314. Two or more words rightly put together, and not making a complete sense, are called a PHRASE.

315. The principal parts of a sentence are the SUBJECT (or nominative), the ATTRIBUTE (or verb), and the OBJECT.

Thus, in the sentence, "John studies his lesson," "John" is the subject, or thing of which the affirmation is made, "studies" is the attribute, or thing affirmed, and "lessons" is the object.

316. A SIMPLE sentence is one which contains but one subject and one finite verb; as, *Life is short*.

317. A COMPOUND sentence contains two or more simple sentences, connected by one or more conjunctions; as, *Life is short, but art is long*.

318. ELLIPSIS in Grammar means the omission of one or more words necessary to complete the sense.

NOTE.—Parsing consists in stating the grammatical properties and relations of words, and the rules of Syntax which properly apply to them. (See Appendix 24.)

RULE I.

THE SUBJECT OF THE VERB IS NOMINATIVE TO IT.

EXPLANATION.—The subject of the verb is that of which the assertion is made. “The book is in the desk.” The subject of the assertion here is “book.” It is that which is asserted to be in the desk. “John and I went home.” Here there are two subjects, “John” and “I.” It is they of whom we say that they “went home.” Now, the subject of the verb, that of which anything is asserted, must be in the nominative case. It would be contrary to the Rule, therefore, to say, “John and *me* went home,” because “*me*,” one of the subjects, is not in the nominative case.

NOTES.

1. Complex names, such as George Washington, Charles Henry Grant, &c., should be taken together in parsing, as if they were one word. Thus, we would say, “Charles Henry Grant” is a noun, &c.

2. The subject of the verb may be an Infinitive Mood, or a part of a sentence, taken as a noun; as, “To behave properly will gain for us a good name.” Here, “To behave” is used in the sense of the noun “behavior.” It is the subject of the verb, just as “behavior” would be, if the sentence were written, “Proper behavior will gain for us a good name.”

3. A noun or a pronoun addressed, and not the subject of any verb, is in the NOMINATIVE CASE INDEPENDENT; as, “Father, forgive them.” In many languages, this construction forms a distinct case, called the Vocative.

4. A noun or a pronoun put before a participle as its subject, and not being the subject of any verb, is in the NOMINATIVE CASE ABSOLUTE; as, “My father dying, I was left an orphan.”

5. In the construction called the case absolute, the nominative is the subject of the participle; and the two words taken together form a dependent clause equivalent to a nominative and a verb, preceded by a conjunction or an adverb. Thus, “Whose grey top shall tremble, he descending;” that is, “*when* he descends.” (See Appendix 25.)

6. The noun or pronoun in absolute clauses is often omitted. Thus, in the sentence, "Generally speaking, labor is not without its reward," "speaking" is put absolutely with *we*, *men*, or some other word of the kind, understood.

7. The rule for the construction of absolute clauses is violated by putting the subject of the participle in any other case than the nominative. As the nominative and objective cases of nouns are alike, no false syntax can occur under this rule except in pronouns. "*Him* (he) dying, I was left an orphan."

8. Every nominative case, except the case independent, the case absolute, and the case of apposition, should be the subject of some verb expressed or understood. This rule is violated by putting a noun and its pronoun as nominative to the same verb; as, "The *day*, it is clear."

MODELS FOR PARSING AND CORRECTING.

"*James* writes a letter." "*James*" is a proper noun, of the masculine gender, in the singular number, third person, and nominative case, subject of the verb "writes," and nominative to it, according to Rule I., which says, "The subject of the verb is nominative to it."

"*He* will write a letter." "*He*" is a personal pronoun, 3d p., masc. g., sing. n., and nom. case, subject of the verb "will write," and nominative to it, according to Rule I. (Quote.)

N. B.—In parsing pronouns, certain other things are to be said, which will be learned under Rule VII. The parsing in the model is complete, as far as it can be given now.

"To behave properly will gain for us a good name." "To behave" is a verb in the infinitive mood, used as a noun, and is the subject of the verb "will gain," according to Note 2, Rule I. (Quote the Note.)

"Father, forgive them." "Father" is a com. noun, masc. g., sing. n., 2d p., and in the nominative case independent, according to Note 3, Rule I. (Quote Note.)

"The sash falling suddenly, his finger was crushed." "Sash" is a com. noun, n. g., sing. n., 3d p., and in the nominative case absolute before the participle "falling," according to Note 4, Rule I. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "Him and her are of the same age."

Ans. *Him* and *her* are here in the objective case. They should be in the nominative, because they are the subjects of the verb *are*, and should read *he* and *she*, according to Rule I. (Quote.)

Correct the sentence, "Solomon was the wisest of men, *him* only excepted who spake as never man spake!" "*Him*" is here in the objective case. It should be in the nominative, because it is placed absolutely with "excepted," and should read "*he* only excepted," according to Note 4, Rule I. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "The man, he is rich." *He* is superfluous, because it is not the subject of any verb. The sentence should read, "The man is rich," according to Note 8, Rule I. (Quote Note.)

EXERCISES.

Parse all the Nominatives in the following sentences, correcting wherever necessary:

Virtue ennobles the mind, vice debases it.

London is a great city.

A good conscience fears nothing.

Him and I could not agree.

They and us agreed to do it.

You and them had a long dispute.

Thomas and me learned the lesson together.

To see the sun is pleasant.

To cultivate the ground is a pleasant occupation.

Only good and wise men can be real friends.

Whence and what art thou, execrable shape?

Show pity, Lord; O, Lord, forgive.

Oh what a fall was there, my countrymen!

"Come back, come back, he cried in grief, my daughter, Oh my daughter!"

His disease being thoroughly cured, and the busy season having commenced, he should have been at his post.

Napoleon being banished, peace was restored to Europe.

Napoleon having raised a large army, crossed the Alps.

His character, viewing it in the most charitable manner, is full of blemishes.

Them descending, the ladder fell.

Whom being dead, the hostility ceased.

Him excepted, John was the worst of the party.

My banks, they are furnished with bees.

This truth, if it had been attended to, the parties would have escaped a great deal of trouble.

RULE II.

A VERB AGREES WITH ITS NOMINATIVE IN NUMBER AND PERSON.

NOTES.

1. Rule II. is violated by putting the verb in any other number or person than its nominative; as, "*They was present.*"

2. In the Indicative, Subjunctive, and Potential moods, every verb should have a nominative expressed, except where two or more verbs are connected in the same construction.

3. A verb in the Infinitive mood has no subject or nominative (p. 48, art. 221, and Appendix 26). In the Imperative mood, the subject or nominative is omitted, *thou*, or *you* being understood (p. 50, note 3).

4. When the subject or nominative of the verb is an infinitive mood, or a part of a sentence, the verb should be singular; as, "*To see the sun is pleasant.*" But if there are two or more infinitives, or clauses, making distinct subjects, then the verb should be plural; as, "*To skate and to play cricket are healthful amusements.*"

5. When a verb has for its nominative a collective noun in the singular, expressing unity of idea, the verb should be singular; as, "*The class is large.*" But, whenever such nominative expresses plurality of idea, the verb should be plural; as, "*The multitude pursue pleasure as their chief good.*"

6. Some nouns, which are not considered nouns of multitude, are frequently used in the singular form, with a plural meaning; as, "*Ten sail of the line were seen off the coast.*" In such cases the verb should be plural.

7. "It," used indefinitely (p. 37, art. 165) before a verb which has a nominative case after it (Rule VI., Note 9), is the subject of that verb, and the verb agrees with it, and not with the other nominative; thus, "It is I," not "It am I;" "It is they," not "It are they."

8. Two or more nominatives connected by *and*, expressed or understood, require a verb in the plural; as, "Socrates and Plato *were* wise." The verb in such cases should be plural, because the assertion is made of all the nominatives. For the same reason, all the nouns and pronouns, representing such nominatives, should be plural; as, "Filthiness and bad food are *sources* of disease," not "a source," &c.

9. When singular nominatives, though connected by *and*, belong to separate propositions, they have a singular verb; as, "The wine, and not the bottle, was used." Nominatives connected by *and* belong to separate propositions, when accompanied by *each*, *every*, *no*, *not*, or some other disuniting word; as, "*Every* house, *every* grove was burnt," "Good order, and *not* mean savings, produces profits." In the former sentence, the meaning is, "Every house was burnt, and every grove was burnt." In the latter, "Good order produces profits, and mean savings do not."

10. Two or more nominatives connected by *and*, if used to express only one subject, require a verb in the singular; as, "That eminent statesman and orator *is* dead."

11. Two or more nominatives in the singular, connected by *or* or *nor*, require a verb in the singular; as, "Ignorance *or* prejudice *has* caused the mistake." The verb in such cases should be singular, because the assertion is true of only one of these nominatives. For the same reason, all the nouns or pronouns, representing such nominatives, should be singular. If any one of the nominatives thus connected by *or* or *nor* is plural, the verb must be plural; as, "Either he or they *were* mistaken."

12. When a verb has nominatives of different persons, connected by *and*, the verb agrees with the first person rather than the second, and with the second rather than the third; as, "He and I shared the peach between *us*." "Shared," here, should be parsed as in the first person.

13. When a verb has nominatives of different persons, connected by *or* or *nor*, the verb agrees in person with the nominative nearest to it; as, "Either thou or I *am* mistaken."

MODELS FOR PARSING AND CORRECTING.

"James *writes* a letter." "Writes" is a transitive verb, irregular (Pres. write, Past, wrote, Perf. P. written), active voice, indicative mood, present tense, third person, singular number, to agree with its nominative "James," according to Rule II. (Quote Rule.)

"To play in the mud *soils* the clothes." "Soils" is a trans. verb, reg., act. v., ind. m., pres. t., 3d p., and in the sing. n., to agree with the verb "to play" in the infinitive mood used as a noun, according to Note 4, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"Thou shall not steal, is the eighth commandment." "Is" is an int. v., irr., ind. m., pres. t., 3d p., sing. n., to agree with its nominative, "Thou shall not steal," a part of a sentence used as a noun, according to Note 4, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"The class *recite* well." "Recite" is an intrans. verb, reg., act. v., ind. m., pres. t., 3d p., and in the pl. n., to agree with its nominative "class," a collective noun expressing a plural idea, according to Note 5, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"Socrates and Plato *were* wise." "Were" is an intrans. verb, irr., ind. m., past t., 3d p., and in the pl. n., because it has two nominatives, "Socrates" and Plato," connected by "and," according to Note 8, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"If that skilful painter and glazier *comes* to town, be sure to employ him." "Comes" is an intrans. verb, irr., act. v., ind. m., pres. t., 3d p., and in the sing. n., because its two nominatives, "painter" and "glazier," express only one subject, according to Note 10, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"Ignorance or prejudice *has caused* the mistake." "Has caused" is a trans. verb, reg., act. v., ind. m., perf. t., 3d p., and in the sing. n., because its two nominatives, "ignorance" and "prejudice," are in the singular, connected by *or*, according to Note 11, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

"He and I *shared* the peach between us." "Shared" is a

trans. verb, reg., act. v., ind. m., past t., in the 1st p., according to Note 12, Rule II. (Quote Note), and in the pl. n., according to Note 8, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "I loves study." Ans. "Loves" is in the third person. It should be in the first person, to agree with its nominative, "I," and should read, "I *love* study," according to Rule II. (Quote.)

Correct the sentence, "The days of man is but as grass." Ans. "Is" is singular. It should be plural, because its nominative, "days," is plural, and should read, "The days of man *are* but as grass," according to Rule II. (Quote Rule.)

Correct the following sentence: "Dear Sir; Have just received your letter." Ans. "Have received" is a verb in the indicative mood, without any nominative expressed. It should read, "I have received," according to Note 2, under Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "To play in the mud and to walk through the wet grass, soils the clothes." Ans. "Soils" is singular. It should be plural, and should read "soil," because it has for its nominative two infinitives, "to play" and "to walk," making two distinct subjects, according to Note 4, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "The people has no opinion of their own." Ans. "Has" is singular. It should be plural, because it has for its nominative "people," a collective noun expressing plurality of idea, and it should read, "The people *have* no opinion," according to Note 5, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the following sentence, "Life and death is in the power of the tongue." Ans. "Is" is singular. It should be plural, because it has two nominatives connected by "and," and should read, "Life and death *are*," &c., according to Note 8, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the sentence, "That distinguished poet, orator, and scholar are dead." Ans. "Are" is plural. It should be "*is*" (singular), because the nominatives "poet," "orator," and "scholar," connected by "and," express only one subject, and require a verb singular, according to Note 10, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the following sentence, "Neither precept nor discipline are so forcible as example." Ans. "Are" is plural. It should be singular, because it has two singular nominatives connected by *nor*, and should read, "Neither precept nor discipline *is*," &c., according to Note 11, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

Correct the following: "Either I or thou am greatly mistaken." Ans. "Am" is first person. It should be second person, to agree with the nearest nominative "thou," and should read, "Either I or thou *art* greatly mistaken," according to Note 13, Rule II. (Quote Note.)

EXERCISES.

Parse the Verbs and Nominatives in the following sentences, supplying omissions, and correcting where necessary:

A variety of pleasing objects charm the eye.

A soft answer turn away wrath.

Our most sanguine prospects has often been blasted.

The number of our days are with thee.

A judicious arrangement of studies facilitate improvement.

Constant perseverance in the path of virtue will gain respect.

There was no memoranda kept of the sales.

The number of the inhabitants amount to one million.

Have a sufficient quantity of oats been given to the horse?

Sufficient data was not given, and the solution of the problems were impossible.

Between grammar and logic there exists many connections.

Many means was employed, but no one means were found efficient.

Trout was found in abundance.

"Oats" are a common noun, of the neuter gender, plural number, and are governed by the preposition "of."

His clothes is torn.

DEAR SIR:—Have just received your letter of yesterday. Am sorry to hear that the stereotype plates are sold. Hope to have better luck next time. On the whole, think have not quite lost all chance of them yet. Very truly yours, &c.

To encourage virtuous actions are praiseworthy.

To love God and keep his commandments, are the whole duty of man.

To eat with unwashed hands, to drink wine, and to eat the flesh of certain animals, is forbidden by the Koran.

Thou shalt love the Lord thy God, is the first and great commandment.

Send the multitude away, that it may go and buy itself bread.

Some people is busy and yet does very little.

Cavalry is not furnished with knapsacks.

The gang contain all the idle and vicious boys of the village.

Congress have adjourned.

The youth of this country is well educated.

The Board of Health have forbidden the vessel to enter the port.

It is the boys of whom I complain.

The sacred Scriptures is a guide to our path.

The smiles of the mob was his reward.

Four pair of ducks was brought into market.

Twenty head of sheep was grazing on the hill.

A great cause of the low state of industry was the restraints put upon it.

His meat were locusts and wild honey.

The crown of virtue are peace and honor.

Infantry — on foot and — knapsacks.

The Russian army — large.

The company — incorporated; the legislature — given it a charter.

The crew — variously employed; a part — singing, another part — dancing.

His food — the fruits of the earth, his drink — water or the juices of berries.

The crew of the Cumberland — drowned; this crew — a heroic band.

The time and the place for the conference was agreed upon.

Idleness and ignorance is the parent of many vices.

Wisdom, virtue, happiness, dwells with the golden mediocrity.

Prosperity and adversity is sent to us for wise purposes.

The abuse of wine, not its use, make it a curse.

My brother with two friends have arrived.

Nothing but the flag and flagstaff were visible.

A strong argument, and not a loud voice, bring conviction.

Food, and no water, are not sufficient to support life.

There was a man and a woman found dead, who were natives of England.

Every city, town, and village were depopulated.

There seems to be war, famine, and disease at this time on the earth.

On Franklin's tomb is this inscription: "Here lies a statesman and philosopher."

Our parlor and sitting-room were the front room in the second story.

His bread and butter depends upon his exertions.

The house in which I was born, my boyhood's happy home, and the abode of all those whom I hold dear, are now crumbling to dust.

The flute or the piano, when skilfully played, produce delightful music; but, the sound of a drum, or the squeaking of the fife, are discordant.

Neither the secretaries nor the president was to be blamed.

To read or to write were equally difficult to him.

Out of his mouth come neither profanity nor obscenity.

Neither the laws nor the Constitution is sufficient to insure perfect order in the community.

Neither the captain, nor the passengers, nor any of the crew was saved.

In him were found neither deceit, nor any other vice.

Here no longer does my wife or children sit at evening. Neither my house, nor she who was its chief attraction, have been spared by the destroyer, time.

Has not his ignorance or bad manners made him the scorn of everybody?

RULE III.

A TRANSITIVE VERB, IN THE ACTIVE VOICE,
GOVERNS THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

EXPLANATION.—This means that a transitive verb, in the active voice, always should have an object, and that object should be in the objective case. (See Appendix 27.)

NOTES.

1. Rule III. is violated in five ways, namely: 1. By putting the object of the verb in any other case than the objective; as, She asked him and *I* (me) to do it. 2. By using a transitive verb in the active voice without an object; as, He ingratiates (himself) with people. 3. By inserting a preposition between the verb and its object; as, I shall premise (with) a few observations. 4. By using an objective with a verb that is not transitive; as, I lie *me* down to sleep. 5. By using an objective case with a transitive verb in the passive voice; as, He was learned arithmetic. To this last item there are some exceptions, sanctioned by the usage of the best writers; as, I was offered a situation in the custom-house. (See Appendix 28.)

2. A participle of a Transitive verb, in the Active voice, governs the objective case; as, "The boy, having eaten unripe *fruit*, became sick."

3. The Relative Pronoun, when in the objective case, generally precedes the verb by which it is governed; as, "The book *which* you see is mine." Here, "*which*" is the object of the verb "see," and is placed before it.

MODELS FOR PARSING AND CORRECTING.

"James writes a *letter*." "Letter" is a com. noun, n. g., sing. n., 3d p., and is in the obj. c., governed by "writes," a transitive verb in the active voice, according to Rule III. (Quote.)

"The boy, having eaten unripe *fruit*, became sick." "Fruit" is a com. noun, n. g., sing. n., 3d p., and in the obj. c., governed by the participle "having eaten," according to Note 2, Rule III. (Quote Note.)

"James called *him*." "Him" is a pers. pronoun, 3d p., masc. g., sing. n., and in the obj. c., governed by "called," a trans. v. in the act. v., according to Rule III. (Quote.)

NOTE.—The parsing of the Pronoun here is complete as far as it goes. But there are other things to be learned concerning it under Rule VII., before it can be entirely complete.

"He and they we know, but who art thou?" "He" and "they" should be in the objective case, because they are the object of the verb "know." The sentence should be, "Him and them we know," according to Rule III. (Quote.)

"He ingratiates with some by traducing others." "Ingratiates," a transitive verb, should not be used without an object. Insert "himself." "He ingratiates himself with some."

"I shall premise with a few general observations." The preposition "with" should not be inserted between the transitive verb "premise" and its object "observations." Omit "with." "I shall premise a few general observations."

"I lie me down to sleep." "Lie," an intransitive verb, should not have an object "me." Either change "lie" to "lay," or omit "me." "I lay me down to sleep," or "I lie down to sleep."

EXERCISES.

•Parse the Objectives which are the objects of verbs, in the following sentences, correcting where necessary:

She that is idle and mischievous, reprove sharply.

The sailors, while exploring the island, found trees bearing delicious fruit. Having eaten a quantity of this fruit, and rested their weary limbs, they continued their journey.

Devotion strengthens virtue.

Let thou and I the battle try.

We ought to disengage from the world by degrees.

A good conscience fears nothing.

Repenting him of his design, he returned to his home.

Application in early life will give ease in old age.

He who committed the offence, thou shouldst punish, not I who am innocent.

It is difficult to agree his conduct with the principles which he professes.

Perseverance in labor will surmount every difficulty.

Wrong acts he suffers with patience.

If you prefer, you may take the apple.

The child chased after the butterfly.

“Chiefs, sages, heroes, bards, and seers,
That live in story and in song,
Time, for the last two thousand years,
Has raised, and shown, and swept along.”

REVIEW.

- Parse all the Nominatives in the foregoing sentences, and all the Verbs except those in the Infinitive mood.

RULE IV.

A PREPOSITION GOVERNS THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

EXPLANATION.—This means that a preposition requires its object, or the word which follows it to complete the sense, to be in the objective case.

NOTES.

1. Prepositions are generally placed before the word which they govern; as, “He came *to* town.”

2. *That*, when used as a relative pronoun, always precedes the preposition by which it is governed; as, “Every book *that* you have referred *to*, is mine.” Here, “*that*” is governed by the preposition “*to*,” and precedes it. If we were to use “*which*” here instead of “*that*,” the arrangement would be different; thus, “Every book *to which* you have referred, is mine.”

3. *Whom* and *which* sometimes precede the preposition; as, “The person *whom* I travelled *with*.” This mode of construction is generally considered inelegant, especially where the preposition is separated some distance from the word which it

governs. The sentence just quoted would read better thus: "The person with whom I travelled."

4. The preposition and the word governed by it, should be placed as near as possible to the preceding word to which they relate; as, "He was reading in a low voice, when I entered," instead of "He was reading, when I entered, in a low voice." The words "in a low voice," relate to the act of "reading," and should not unnecessarily be separated from it.

5. Sometimes, in law papers, and other documents of a formal nature, two prepositions govern jointly the same word; as, "He is related *to*, and governed *by*, the same person." Such constructions in other kinds of writing should be avoided. The sentence may run thus: "He is related to the same person, and is governed by him."

6. A still more objectionable mode of construction is, where the same word is governed jointly by a transitive verb and a preposition; as, "He was warned *of*, and urged *to avoid* the danger." It should be, "He was warned of the danger, and urged to avoid it."

7. When a preposition is followed by an adjective without a noun, supply the noun, and parse the preposition accordingly; as, "Keep to the right (hand)."

8. The preposition is frequently omitted, particularly after verbs of *giving* and *procuring*; after adjectives of *likeness* or *nearness*; and before nouns denoting *time*, *place*, *price*, *measure*, &c. Examples: Give (to) me a book. Get (for) me an apple. Like (to) his father. Near (to) his home. They travelled (through) sixty miles (in) a day. A wall (by?) six feet high. Subjects worthy (of) fame. Books worth (worthy of?) a dollar. (See Appendix 28, 29.)

9. Formerly, the preposition *for* was used before the infinitive mood; as, "What went ye out *for* to see?" This is not allowable now.

10. Sometimes one preposition immediately precedes another; as, "*From before* the altar." The two prepositions in such cases should be considered as one, just as in the case of the compound prepositions *upon*, *within*, &c.

11. Sometimes a preposition precedes an adverb; as, *at once*, *for ever*, &c. The two words should be taken together, as in the preceding case, and called an adverb.

12. *At* and *to*. *At* is used after a verb of rest; as, "He resides *at* Madrid." *To* is used after a verb of motion; as, "He went *to* Spain."

13. *Between* and *among*. *Between* refers to two objects, *among* to more than two; as, "There is no difference of opinion between the President and the Vice-President (two), although there is among the members of the Cabinet generally (more than two)."

14. Words followed by appropriate prepositions. (See Appendix 30.)

Absent <i>from</i> .	{ Attribute <i>to</i> (verb).
Access <i>to</i> .	{ Attribute <i>of</i> (noun).
Accused <i>of</i> .	{ Diminish <i>from</i> (a verb).
Acquit <i>of</i> .	{ Diminution <i>of</i> (a noun).
Adapt <i>to</i> .	Betray <i>to</i> a person.
Affection <i>for</i> .	" <i>into</i> a thing.
Alienate <i>from</i> .	Call <i>on</i> a person.
Alliance <i>with</i> .	" <i>at</i> a house.
Bestow <i>upon</i> .	" <i>for</i> a thing.
Comply <i>with</i> .	Confide <i>to</i> (transitive).
Consonant <i>with</i> .	" <i>in</i> (intransitive).
Depend <i>upon</i> .	Accord <i>to</i> (transitive).
Dissent <i>from</i> .	" <i>with</i> (intransitive).
Made <i>of</i> .	Compare <i>to</i> (for illustration).
Martyr <i>for</i> .	" <i>with</i> (for quality).
Need <i>of</i> .	Copy <i>from</i> nature.
True <i>to</i> .	" <i>after</i> a parent.
{ Agent charged <i>with</i> a thing.	Defend others <i>from</i> .
{ Thing charged <i>on</i> an agent.	" ourselves <i>against</i> .
{ Avert <i>from</i> (verb).	Die <i>of</i> a disease.
{ Averse <i>to</i> (adjective).	" <i>by</i> a sword.
Differ <i>with</i> a person in opinion.	Reconcile a person <i>to</i> .
" <i>from</i> him in character.	" a thing <i>with</i> .
Agree <i>with</i> a person.	Taste <i>of</i> (actual enjoyment).
" <i>to</i> a thing.	" <i>for</i> (capacity for enjoying).

MODELS FOR PARSING.

"James writes a letter to his *father*." "Father" is a com. noun, masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., and in the obj. c., governed by the preposition "to," according to Rule IV. (Quote.)

"To" is a preposition, showing the relation between "writes," and "father," and governs "father" in the obj. c., according to Rule IV. (Quote.)

"God seeth *in secret*." "In" is a preposition, showing the relation between "seeth" and "places," or some such noun understood. The meaning is, "God seeth in secret places."

EXERCISES.

Parse the Prepositions, and the Nouns or Pronouns governed by them, in the following sentences, supplying omissions, and correcting the sentences, where necessary:

Indolence undermines the foundation of virtue, and unfits a man for the duties of life.

Between you and I, he has no scholarship to boast of.

God, in whom I trust, will protect me.

Confide to real friends only; confide nothing in him who has once deceived you.

If I compare my penmanship to yours, mine will suffer by the comparison.

Newton, in order to show how little he had accomplished, compared himself with a child picking pebbles on the seashore.

The Indian differs with the Caucasian in color.

I differ from you on this point.

Who did you receive that intelligence from?

The book, which the story is printed in, is full of pictures.

The delay in the printing renders the progress very slow of the work.

Beyond this period, the arts cannot be traced of civil society.

He is unacquainted with, and cannot speak upon, that subject.

He dwelt upon, and strongly urged, your claims.

I received, but had not time to reply to, your letter.

He told me for to do it.

The book is like its author.

The fountain is near the city.

His mother bought him a top.

The next day they set out early in the morning, and travelled twenty miles.

His health he little thought of.

There is a room in the second story suitable for a single gentleman with a fire-place.

He found a dog, belonging to an old lady, with a brass collar, having a ribbon attached.

He was talking, while his class were quietly studying, in a loud voice, when his teacher entered, and chastised him, with noiseless steps.

Who did you inquire of, at the house which you were sent to, and what did they complain of?

He approved of and voted for this measure.

I have noticed of late that the sky above and the earth beneath wear an appearance of gloom.

I sought in vain for a cheerful spot, and at last gave up in despair.

I hear a voice coming from below.

From within, a foul stench arose; but from without, the sepulchre was fair and comely.

I will take her for better, for worse.

He addresses himself to the loyal.

Though he was a child only five years old, he showed grown men an example worthy their imitation.

Next her brother, stood a little girl, who asked the boy opposite her place, to lend her his book, but he churlishly refused her this simple request.

It was two degrees below zero.

He was sent home two weeks sooner than the usual time.

Among a brother and a sister no strife should arise.

Between the many religious sects he was unable to find one suited to his notions of religion.

The army will remain in Washington for a day and then march at the nearest point of attack.

He divided his estate between his wife, his son, and his daughter.

His actions do not accord to his preaching; we cannot accord our support with him.

It was difficult to reconcile the mother with the loss of her child; she could not reconcile such an affliction to the goodness of God.

REVIEW.

Parse all the objects of Verbs in the foregoing sentences.

Parse all the Verbs (except those in the infinitive), and all the Nominatives, and Possessives.

RULE V.

A NOUN OR A PRONOUN IN THE POSSESSIVE CASE IS GOVERNED BY THE NOUN SIGNIFYING THE THING POSSESSED.

NOTES.

1. The possessive case is not the only way in which the idea of possession may be expressed. A very common mode of expressing this idea is by using the preposition *of*. Thus, "The house of my father," and "My father's house," express equally the idea of property. In substituting one of these modes of expression for the other, care should be taken to see that the two expressions mean the same thing. In the expression, "The House of Representatives," "of" does not convey the idea of *possession*, but of *composition*. It means the House or Assembly composed of Representatives.

2. The governing noun is often omitted; as, "I bought this slate at the bookseller's [shop]." In such cases, supply the omission, and parse according to the general rule.

3. In consequence of ellipsis, there is sometimes an appearance of a double possessive; as, "This is a speech of the king's [speeches]." Here, "of" does not denote possession. The meaning is, "This speech is *one of* the king's speeches." In all

such instances, the preposition governs the noun understood, and the noun understood governs the possessive.

4. The two modes of expression, "A picture of the king," and "A picture of the king's," never mean the same thing. The noun understood in the latter case is always plural, and the idea is always that of possession. The phrase "A picture of the king's," implies that this is one out of many pictures, and that they belong to the king. But, in the phrase "A picture of the king," no intimation is given of a plurality of pictures, and the idea of possession is not necessarily, if ever, conveyed.

5. In complex names, the sign of the possessive is put only at the end, and the whole complex name is parsed as one word. Thus, "George Washington's farewell address," not "George's Washington's," &c.

6. A complex title sometimes consists of several words, some of which may be different parts of speech, and may have an independent construction of their own; thus, "The captain of the guard's horse was slain." In parsing such a sentence, "of the guard" should be parsed first, separately, "guard" being in the objective. Then, "captain of the guard's" is parsed as one complex name, in the possessive case, governed by "horse." The 's belongs not to "guard," but to the whole expression. These complex titles are sometimes written with a hyphen, as, "commander-in-chief." Where complex titles are used, the idea of possession may be conveyed by using "of," "belonging to," or something similar. This mode of expression in such cases is generally to be preferred to the use of 's. Thus, "The horse belonging to the captain of the guard was slain."

7. When two or more nouns are connected in the possessive, expressing joint possession, the sign of the possessive should be put only after the last; as, "The king and queen's marriage." "King" here is to be parsed as the possessive, with the sign of the possessive omitted. If, however, several words intervene between the nouns so connected, the sign should not be omitted; as, "It was my father's, and also my brother's wish."

8. The sign of the possessive should not be omitted when separate, instead of joint possession is expressed; as, "Washington's and Cornwallis's troops approached each other."

9. When a noun in the possessive has one or more other nouns in apposition, the sign of the possessive is often omitted after the latter, especially if there is more than one of them, or if the governing noun is omitted; as, "At Smith's, the bookseller and stationer." "Bookseller" and "stationer," here, should be parsed as in the possessive, with the sign of the possessive omitted.

10. In like manner, the sign of the possessive may be omitted after a noun in apposition with a pronoun in the possessive; as, "Here lies *his* head, a *youth* to fortune and to fame unknown." "Youth," here, is in the possessive (the sign being omitted), and is in apposition with "his." The meaning is, "The head of him, a youth," &c.

11. Care should be taken not to separate the possessive from the governing word by inserting explanatory clauses; as, "She extolled the farmer's, as she called him, excellent understanding." In such cases, the idea of possession should be by "of," or in some similar way. Thus, "She extolled the excellent understanding of the farmer, as she called him."

12. Certain compound pronouns in the possessive case are sometimes separated; as, "*Whose* house *soever*." This, however, is to be generally avoided.

13. The possessive is sometimes governed by a participle used as a noun; as, "The cause of John's forgetting the lesson was his anxiety about the excursion." Here, "John's" is in the possessive case, governed by "forgetting" used as a noun. It would not be correct to put "John" in the objective case governed by "of." "Of," here, governs "forgetting," not "John." "The cause of *John* forgetting the lesson," should be, "The cause of *John's* forgetting the lesson." "The cause of *him* not doing it," should be, "The cause of *his* not doing it."

MODELS FOR PARSING.

"James writes a letter by his *father's* permission." "Father's" is a com. noun, masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., and in the poss. c., governed by "permission," according to Rule V. (Quote.)

“George Washington’s Farewell Address has just been read.”
 “George Washington’s,” a complex name, is a prop. noun,
 masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., poss. c., governed by “Address,”
 according to Rule V. (Quote.)

EXERCISES.

Parse all the Nouns and Pronouns in the possessive case, in the following sentences, correcting the sentences, and supplying ellipses, wherever necessary :

A man’s manners often make his fortune.

Asa’s heart was perfect in the Lord’s sight.

Helen’s beauty caused the destruction of Troy.

The Representatives’ House adjourned on the fifth of June.

The Lord’s day will come as a thief in the night.

This is a discovery of Sir Isaac Newton’s.

The bishop of New York’s letter was published in the daily papers.

William and Mary’s reign was one of the most distinguished in English history.

John and Mary’s book case is filled partly with his books, and partly with hers.

John’s and Mary’s book cases are both filled with books.

William and Lucy’s cloaks were lost.

The Princeton and the Raritan’s crews are now both complete.

If he learn any trade, it should be his father’s.

He was tried at the magistrate’s for stealing a parcel of rings at the jeweller’s.

The painting of Christ Healing the Sick is a picture of West.

There are many pictures of Washington’s on tavern signs.

The farewell address of Washington’s was read on the anniversary of his death.

It was the Sergeant-at-arms’s duty to execute the Speaker of the House of Representatives’ order.

The Archbishop of Canterbury’s opinion was preferred to the Archbishop of York’s.

Men and women’s shoes are made very differently.

The captain and the lieutenant's sword were much alike in appearance.

Scott's and Butler's store was destroyed by the fire, and all the goods belonging to the firm were burned.

No one ever doubted Mad Anthony's, as he was called, bravery and skill.

The necessity of the general obtaining supplies was obvious.

REVIEW.

Parse all the Nominatives in the foregoing sentences.

Parse the objects of all the Verbs and Prepositions.

Parse all the Prepositions.

Parse all the Verbs, except those in the infinitive mood.

RULE VI.

A NOUN OR A PRONOUN, PUT IN APPPOSITION WITH ANOTHER, AGREES WITH IT IN CASE.

NOTES.

1. The words in apposition may be in any case, nominative, possessive, or objective.

2. When a word is in apposition with another in the possessive case, the sign of the possessive is sometimes omitted.

“This is the wandering wood, this Error's den,
A *monster* vile, whom God and man do hate.”

“Monster,” here, is in the possessive case, the sign of the possessive being omitted, and is in apposition with “Error's.”

3. A noun may be put in apposition to a whole sentence; as, “He promptly acceded to my request, an act which redounds greatly to his honor.” “Act” is here nominative, in apposition with the whole of the preceding sentence.

4. When several words form one proper name, as “Thomas Jefferson,” these words are in apposition, but they should be parsed together as one complex noun. In forming the plural,

or the possessive, of such complex names, the sign should be put only at the end; as, "The country has not had two Thomas Jeffersons;" "Thomas Jefferson's works."

5. When a proper name has a title prefixed, as, "General Greene," "Dr. Rush," "Mr. Stockton," the words are in apposition, but they should be parsed together as one complex noun.

6. In forming the plural of complex names, consisting of a proper noun and a title, if the article and a numeral adjective are prefixed, the *last* word only should be plural; as, "The two Mr. Stocktons." But when a numeral is not prefixed, the *title* only should be plural; as, "The Messrs. Stockton," "The Misses Stockton."

7. One of the most frequent instances of apposition, is where the proper name of an object is appended to its common name; as, "The river Delaware." It is a peculiarity of the English language that the proper names of places, when so appended, are not in apposition, but are put in the objective and governed by "of;" as, "The city *of* Philadelphia."

8. The phrases "They love one another," "They love each other," &c., afford instances of apposition that very frequently occur. In these examples, "one" and "each" are in apposition with "they;" and "another" and "other" are in the objective, governed by "love." The meaning is, "One loves another," "Each loves the other."

9. The verb *to be* has the same case after it as before it. This rule applies also to many other intransitive verbs, and likewise to the passive voice of some transitive verbs; as, *to become, to be named, to be called, &c.* The noun or pronoun after the verb in such cases is in apposition with the one before it, and should be so parsed. Examples: "Cicero was an orator," "Mr. Thomas ranks as captain," "Paul is called the apostle to the gentiles."

10. The verb *to be* in the infinitive mood used as a noun, may have a noun or a pronoun after it without any other noun before it; as, "To be a good *man*, is not so easy a thing as many people imagine." Here, "man" should be parsed as used indefinitely after the verb *to be*, without saying what its case is. This rule applies also to the infinitive mood of many

other intransitive verbs, and likewise to the passive voice of some transitive verbs; as, "To live a consistent *Christian*, is not easy," "To be called a *Roman*, was counted a great honor." (See Appendix 31.)

MODEL FOR PARSING.

"James writes a letter to his brother *John*." "John" is a prop. noun, masc. g., sing. n., 3d p., obj. c., in apposition with the noun "brother," according to Rule VI. (Quote.)

EXERCISES.

Parse the Nouns and Pronouns in Apposition in the following sentences, correcting where necessary:

Alexander, the coppersmith, did me great harm.

Harrisburg, the capital of Pennsylvania, lies on the bank of the Susquehanna.

Thomson, the author of the seasons, is a delightful poet.

The knife was given to me by my brother James, he that was here last week.

Mr. Dale, the carpenter, him whom you saw here yesterday, is dead.

Godliness with contentment are great gain.

The Senate caused Sylla to be proclaimed Dictator.

The hare is beset by death in various forms, snares, dogs, and the hunter's gun.

Education, the great civilizer, is the best safeguard of that blood-bought blessing, liberty.

I met a fool, a crazy fool, in the streets, selling pictures, the works of his own idle fancy.

This is Arnold's grave, that vile traitor who sold his country for money.

They destroyed the vessel and returned without losing a single man, an exploit which was highly creditable.

He was playing ball, an amusement of which boys are very fond.

We Americans call England our mother country.

There are eight Kings Henry in English history.

I have two aunts Mary.

Wine has been his ruin. He entered manhood a pattern of sobriety, but died a miserable sot.

When I reign king, thou shalt be my slave.

Solomon is counted the wisest man of all ages.

The carriage was returned a perfect wreck.

To die a Christian is more desirable than to reign king.

To live a coward accords better with some persons' inclination, than to leave the world a hero.

REVIEW.

Parse all the Nominatives in the foregoing exercises.

Parse all the Possessives.

Parse the objects of all the Verbs and Prepositions.

Parse all the Verbs and Prepositions.

RULE VII.

A PRONOUN AGREES WITH THE NOUN FOR WHICH IT STANDS IN GENDER, NUMBER, AND PERSON.

NOTES.

1. When a pronoun stands for a Collective noun, in the singular, the pronoun should be plural if the idea expressed by the noun is plural; as, "Send the multitude away that *they* may buy themselves bread." But if the idea expressed by the noun is singular, the pronoun should be singular, and should be in the neuter gender. "The class is too large; *it* must be divided into sections."

2. When a pronoun stands for two or more words, connected by *and*, the pronoun should be plural. Thus, "William and Mary were both there; I saw *them*." "He and Mary were both there; I saw *them*." "He and she were both there; I saw *them*." "Them" in the first example stands for two nouns, in the second example for a noun and a pronoun, and in the third for two pronouns.

3. When a pronoun stands for two or more words of different genders, the gender of the pronoun is indeterminate, and must be omitted in parsing; as, "I saw the man and his portrait side by side, and I could hardly tell *them* apart, so great was the likeness." Here, "them" stands for "man" (masc.) and "portrait" (neuter); the gender of "them" therefore cannot be determined.

4. When a pronoun stands for two or more words, connected by *and*, but used to express only one subject, the pronoun should be singular. Thus, "He knew his Lord and Saviour, and loved *him*."

5. When a pronoun stands for two or more words, in the singular, connected by *or* or *nor*, the pronoun should be singular. Thus, "Either play or work is injurious, if *it* is carried to excess."

6. When a pronoun stands for two or more words, of different persons, connected by *and*, the pronoun agrees with the first person rather than the second, and with the second rather than the third. Thus, "William and I had *our* skates with *us*." "Our" and "us" are plural, according to Note 2, because they stand for two subjects, "William" and "I." But one of these subjects, "William," being in the third person, and the other, "I," being in the first person, the pronoun which stands for both must be in the first person. We would not express the meaning, if we were to say, "William and I had *their* skates with *them*."

7. Words of different genders or persons, connected by *or* or *nor*, cannot be correctly represented by a single pronoun. Thus, "Mary or William has lost — book." We cannot supply the blank with *her*, *his*, or *their*. Again, "I or thou hast lost — book." We cannot supply the blank with *my*, *thy*, or *our*.

8. A pronoun may stand for an infinitive mood; as, "To contradict an aged person may be rude, but *it* is not criminal." A pronoun may stand also for a part of a sentence; as, "He is very witty, but unfortunately he is aware of *it*." The pronoun in such cases should be in the third person, neuter gender, and singular number. But if there are two or more infinitives, or

clauses, making distinct subjects, then the pronoun should be plural; as, "To be temperate, and to use exercise in the open air, are good preservatives of health, but *they* are not infallible."

9. The pronoun *It* is sometimes used indefinitely, that is, without standing for any particular noun. Thus, "Come and trip *it* as you go," "*It* rains," "*It* was he that did it," &c. (p. 37, art. 165).

10. The gender of a noun is sometimes changed by personification (p. 23, note 5). In such instances, a similar change occurs in the gender of the pronoun; as, "The ship has lost *her* anchor."

11. *We* frequently, and *you* generally, are used to represent the singular (p. 36, art. 161, 162). It is improper in such cases to change the construction during the progress of a sentence; as, "*Thou* wast true to me in the day of trouble, and *your* kindness I can never forget." It should be either "*thou*" and "*thy*," or "*you*" and "*your*."

12. *Who* is used in referring to persons; *Which* is used in referring to inferior animals, to things without life, to infants, to collective nouns where unity of idea is expressed, and to persons in asking questions where the particular individual is inquired for. "*Which*" was formerly applied to persons as well as things; as, "Our Father, *which* art in heaven."

13. *That* is used instead of *Who* or *Which* in the following cases:

1. After the *SUPERLATIVE*; as, "It is the *best* book *that* can be got."

2. After *SAME*; as, "He is the *same* kind-hearted man *that* he used to be."

3. After *ALL*, or any similar antecedent expressing a general meaning, limited by the following verb; as, "*All that* heard me can testify."

4. After *Who*; as, "*Who, that* has seen anything of human nature, can believe it?"

5. After *It*, used indefinitely; as, "*It* was he *that* did it."

6. After two antecedents, one requiring *who*, and the other

requiring *which*; as, "The *man* and the *house that* we saw yesterday."

14. When the relative has two antecedents, of different persons, one before and the other after the verb *to be*, the relative agrees in person with the nearest; as, "I am the man *who* commands you." Where a different meaning is intended, the relative should be placed nearer the first antecedent; as, "I *who* command you, am a man."

15. The relative should be placed near its antecedent to prevent ambiguity; thus, "The *boy* broke his slate, *whom* everybody believed incapable of doing mischief," should be, "The *boy, whom* everybody believed incapable of doing mischief, broke his slate."

16. The relative is sometimes omitted; as, "The letter [which] you wrote me on Saturday, came duly to hand." This is allowable only in colloquial language.

17. The antecedent is sometimes omitted; as, "[The person] who lives to nature, rarely can be poor."

18. *What* is sometimes apparently used as an adverb, but in all such cases the ellipsis can be supplied; as, "What doth it profit a man?" that is, "[In] what [respect] doth it profit a man?"

19. *What* should not be used for the conjunction *that*. Thus, "I don't know but *what* I shall go," should be, "I don't know but *that* I shall go."

20. *Whichever, whatsoever, &c.*, are sometimes written as two words with other words intervening; as, "*which side soever*." In parsing, the two parts of the word should be taken together as one word.

MODELS FOR PARSING.

"John, *who* was at school, wrote a letter to his father."
 "Who" is a rel. pron., 3d p., sing. n., masc. g., to agree with "John," according to Rule VII. (Quote), and is in the nom. c. to "was," according to Rule I. (Quote.)

"It" (in the second example under Note 1) is a pers. pron., 3d p., and in the sing. n., n. g., to agree with "class," a collective noun expressing unity of idea, according to Rule VII.,

Note 1 (Quote Note), and is in the nom. c. to "must be divided," according to Rule I. (Quote.)

"Us" (in the example, Note 6) is a pers. pron., standing for "William" and "I," two words of different persons; it is therefore in the 1st p., according to Note 6, Rule VII. (Quote Note), pl. n., according to Note 2, Rule VII. (Quote Note), and obj. c., governed by the preposition "with," according to Rule IV. (Quote.)

"That" (in the last example, Note 13) is a rel. pron., relating to the two antecedents, "man" and "house," and used instead of "who" or "which," according to Note 13, Rule VII. (Quote Note), pl. n., according to Note 2, Rule VII. (Quote Note), and obj. c., governed by the verb "saw," according to Rule III. (Quote.)

"He reads *what* is written." "What" is a compound relative, including both antecedent and relative (that—which), in the 3d p., sing. n., n. g. As antecedent, it is in the obj. c., and governed by "reads," according to Rule III. (Quote.) As relative, it is in the nom. c. to "is written," according to Rule I. (Quote.)

EXERCISES.

Parse all the Pronouns in the following sentences, correcting and supplying omissions where necessary:

He only who is active and industrious, can experience real pleasure.

He who is a stranger to industry, may possess wealth, but he cannot enjoy it.

Trust not him whose friendship is bought with gold.

The boys replied to the general, "We come to you to complain of your soldiers; they have destroyed our play ground. We requested them not to disturb it, but they called us rebels."

The multitude seek pleasure as its chief good.

The Board of School Controllers have just published its annual report.

If your rudeness and noise continue, it will effectually hinder you from gaining any benefit.

A lampoon or a satire do not carry in them robbery or murder.

The army was eating its dinner, when it was surprised.

The family of Adam include the whole human race; you and I are a part of them.

The silent circle fans itself in doors, while the coachman without is famished with cold.

It appears to have been John and James who were guilty.

What is it that vexes you?

The moon shed her pale light over the landscape.

Lay up in thy heart what you have now heard.

Do unto others, as thou wouldst have others do unto you.

[Supply relatives before parsing.] The ship — I saw had a cargo — was very valuable; its captain was a man — every member of the crew obeyed, though — was composed of men of the worst character.

Who, who ever had a man or a beast, which served him faithfully, would say, it is they who should thank me; I have nothing for which to feel grateful.

Solomon was the wisest man whom the world ever saw.

It is the same picture which you saw before.

All which beauty, all which wealth e'er gave.

Who, who has any sense of religion, will argue thus?

The lady and the lapdog which we saw in the window.

The king dismissed his minister without any inquiry, who had never before been guilty of so unjust an action.

The tiger is a beast of prey, who destroys without pity.

This is the friend which I love.

That is the vice whom I hate.

The infant whom you see in the cradle is sick.

Who of those men came to his assistance?

Thou art the man who has done the crime, and I who suffers the penalty, am innocent.

Thou hast been a spectator who hast applauded.

Take that book to the library, which I left on my table.

There was a bird caught by the fox, which was web-footed.

The criminal was hung by the sheriff, who committed this shocking murder.

That officer was selected to arrest the thief, in whom the Mayor placed the utmost confidence.

This soldier was never rewarded by his captain, who was the bravest private in his company, because he differed with him in politics.

[Supply relative before parsing.] The house I live in and the furniture it contains are the products of the industry of the many toilsome hours I spent in active business.

[Supply antecedent.] Who tempers the wind to the shorn lamb, will take care of me.

Whom I respect I obey, not those I have no confidence in.

[Insert proper pronouns in dotted spaces, and verbs in the other.]

The school — composed of both sexes; . . . — been divided into two departments.

The Cabinet — divided in . . . opinion.

The legislature — . . . meetings at Harrisburg; my brother is a member of . . .

He had experienced hunger and thirst, and therefore knew what it was without a description.

Every officer and every soldier were at their post.

Why should dust and ashes exhibit their pride, or flesh and blood glory in their strength?

Either my father, or any other man could have had the right to express their opinions.

Hunger or thirst I can bear; they give pain to the body; but the pangs of a guilty conscience I cannot bear.

She or Mary must have left their candle burning.

RULE VIII.

AN ARTICLE BELONGS TO THE NOUN WHICH IT QUALIFIES OR POINTS OUT.

NOTES.

1. The noun to which the article belongs is often understood. In that case, supply the noun, and parse the article according to the Rule, as belonging to the noun thus supplied. Thus,

"Turn neither to *the* right [hand], nor to *the* left [hand]."
 "Henry *the* Eighth [king of that name] was then reigning."

2. An adjective preceding the noun, must come between it and the article; as, "a virtuous man," not "virtuous a man." Except *all, such, many, what, both*, and adjectives preceded by *too, so, as, how*; as, "all the men," "such a sight," "too serious an undertaking," &c.

3. When two or more adjectives connected belong to the same subject, the article is used only before the first; as, "a red and white flag," *i. e.*, one flag, partly red and partly white. But, when the adjectives belong to different subjects, the article is repeated before each; as, "a red, and a white flag," *i. e.*, two flags, one red, and one white.

4. In using the comparative with *than*, if the nouns before and after "than" both refer to the same subject, the article should be used only before the first; as, "He is a better speaker than writer;" but, if the nouns refer to different subjects, the article should be repeated before both; as, "A man makes a better soldier than a woman."

5. *A* or *an* is joined to nouns in the singular number only; as, "a man." The exceptions to this are apparent rather than real. Thus, "a few things," means a certain number of things, and not more; "a thousand men" means one thousand of men, and not two thousand, &c. The *a* should be parsed as belonging to the words "few," "thousand," &c., used as nouns in the singular, and the word following governed by *of* understood.

6. A marked difference of meaning is produced by the use or omission of *a* before *few* and *little*. "He has *a* little decency," means he has at least *some*. "He has *little* decency," intimates a doubt whether he has *any*.

7. *A* or *an* has sometimes the meaning of *every*; as, "twice *a* day." Such sentences are always elliptical, *in* or some other preposition being understood; as, "Twice [*in*] a day."

8. *A* is often an abbreviation for some other short word, *at, in, on, &c.* (p. 79, art. 283); as, "His greatness is *a* ripening." In such cases it is not an article but a preposition, and is to be parsed accordingly.

9. *The* is used before comparatives and superlatives. Where these comparatives and superlatives are adjectives, the noun to which the article belongs can easily be supplied. "An estate, *the* largest in the city." But in the case of adverbs there does not seem to be any ellipsis of the noun; as, "*The* more carefully you examine the book, *the* better you will like it." The article seems to qualify the adverb and belong to it.

10. *The* is used before the antecedent of a restrictive clause; as, "*The* men, *who were absent*, neglected their duty."

MODEL FOR PARSING.

"James writes *a* letter." "A" is the ind. art., and belongs to the noun "letter," according to Rule VIII. (Quote.)

EXERCISES.

Parse the Articles in the following sentences, supplying omissions, and correcting where necessary:

At first the enemy gave way, but afterward he repulsed the left of our line.

Time destroys both the great and the small.

Glory to God in the highest.

A too severe discipline is tyranny.

The banner of the United States is a red, a white, and a blue flag.

Fire is a better servant than a master.

He is a better poet than a historian.

A rosy faced and pale girl were seen on the right of the room.

Truth is a mightier weapon than sword.

Disease is a greater destroyer than earthquake.

Mr. C. having tried the stage and pulpit, was found to be a better minister than an actor.

He had a few pupils, who came twice a week to receive his lessons. They preferred this to going a hunting.

The louder he spoke, the less he was heard, and the noise made by the audience became the greater.

He who uses filthy language has a little decency.

He who merely is ashamed of soiled clothes, shows thereby that he has little decency.

He was such a tyrant that a few persons mourned at his death.

As everybody knew him to be a thief, a few persons intrusted their goods to him.

REVIEW.

Parse all the Nouns, Pronouns, Verbs, and Prepositions in the foregoing sentences.

RULE IX.

AN ADJECTIVE BELONGS TO THE NOUN OR THE PRONOUN WHICH IT QUALIFIES.

NOTES.

1. The noun to which the adjective belongs is sometimes omitted; as, "Of two evils, choose the least" In that case, supply the omission, and parse the adjective according to the Rule, as belonging to the noun thus supplied.

2. An adjective sometimes qualifies an infinitive mood, or a part of a sentence, used as a noun; as, "To use profane language is both foolish and wicked." In such cases the adjective should be parsed as belonging to the infinitive mood, or the part of a sentence.

3. The infinitive mood and the participle are sometimes found with an adjective after them not qualifying any particular noun, that is, used indefinitely; as, "To be *good* is the surest way of being *happy*." "Good," here, is to be parsed by saying that it is an adjective used indefinitely after the infinitive. In like manner, "happy" is used indefinitely after the participle.

4. When an adjective expresses any number (more than one), the noun or pronoun to which it belongs must be plural; as, "ten pounds," not "ten pound." Some nouns, however, have a plural meaning with a singular form; as, "Ten sail of the line." In such instances the plural form of the noun is not required.

5. When two adjectives precede a noun, both expressing number, one of them may express the idea of unity, the other that of plurality; as, "one hundred men," "the first hundred lines," &c. In these instances, the several things are considered in their aggregate capacity, as forming one whole. The rule of construction is, to make the noun plural, and put the singular adjective before the plural one; as, "the first hundred lines," not "the hundred first lines."

6. *Many*, is sometimes used before the singular with *a* prefixed; as, "many a flower."

7. The comparative degree generally refers to two objects, the superlative to two or more; as, "John is the *taller* of the two," "John is the *tallest* of the whole six."

8. The comparative considers the objects compared as belonging to different classes; as, "Eve was fairer than any of *her daughters*." The superlative considers the objects as belonging to one class; as, "Eve was the fairest of women."

9. Double comparatives and superlatives are improper. Thus, "A worser man," should be, "A worse man;" "The most politest boy," should be, "The politest boy."

10. Some adjectives (p. 34, art. 153) express a quality incapable of increase or diminution; as, *chief*, *extreme*, *universal*, &c. In such cases, the comparative and superlative terminations should not be used.

11. Adjectives should not be used for adverbs, that is, to qualify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. "He speaks correct," should be, "He speaks correctly;" "A sufficient long time," should be, "A sufficiently long time;" "He came remarkable soon," should be, "He came remarkably soon."

12. Sometimes the adjective seems to qualify a verb; as, "The egg is boiled *hard*," "The apple tastes *sweet*," "The board looks *smooth*, but it is rough." In these cases, as the verb connects the quality with the preceding noun or pronoun, the word is an adjective, and it should be so parsed.

13. In poetry, an adjective is sometimes used in the sense of an adverb; as, "*Slow* rises merit when by poverty oppressed." In these cases, the word is an adverb, and should be so parsed.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

“James writes a *long* letter.” “Long” is an adj., in the pos. deg. (“long, longer, longest,”), and belongs to “letter,” which it qualifies or describes, according to Rule IX. (Quote.)

EXERCISES.

Parse the Adjectives in the following sentences, supplying omissions, and correcting where necessary:

A great reward has been offered for the detection of the criminal.

The best men are liable to occasional infirmities of temper.

To repine at the prosperity of others is despicable.

To be ever active in laudable pursuits is highly meritorious.

There are six foot of water in the hold.

The three last verses.

Chimborazo is the highest mountain of Europe.

Spain at one time possessed a greater commerce than any nation in Europe.

The tongue is like a race-horse, which runs the faster, the lesser weight it carries.

Sing the three first and the last stanzas of the hymn.

There is no more universal sentiment than this.

Virtue confers the supremest dignity on man.

He writes elegant. She sings sweet.

To drink wine to excess is destructive of health.

To practise virtue is more acceptable to God than the sacrifice of bullocks or rams.

To be wise to-day is the way to commence to be wise.

To remain ignorant in a land like ours is inexcusable.

The evil that men do lives after them; the good is often buried with them.

The vain, the wealthy, and the proud, are not the proper persons to be imitated.

“Then give Humility a coach and six.”

That style of dress is more admired by some than this. Let each lady indulge their own taste.

Those who go to war must expect to suffer many privations ; some will die, and others lose their limbs.

Every station in life has its cares.

The hay is sufficient for ten heads of horses, allowing twenty pound to each horse.

The ten first men marched by two.

The smallest of her twins seemed the more intelligent of her six children ; Samuel was the strongest of all his brothers, and Mary the neatest of the other members of the family.

You should hold your body more perpendicular, and your feet wider apart, giving your body a more pyramidal form.

The most adamantine walls are but weak defences against the wrath of a most omnipotent God.

Consumption is the most destructive of the other diseases, and more common than any disease in the United States.

REVIEW.

Parse the Articles, Nouns, Verbs, and Prepositions in the foregoing sentences.

RULE X.

AN ADJECTIVE PRONOUN BELONGS TO THE NOUN OR THE PRONOUN WHICH IT QUALIFIES OR POINTS OUT.

NOTES.

1. The Distributives and Demonstratives agree in number with the nouns to which they belong ; as, "*This* sort of persons," not "Those sort." The distributives, *each*, *every*, *either*, *neither*, are all singular. Of the demonstratives, *this* and *that* are singular, *these* and *those* plural.

2. The personal pronoun should not be used for the adjective pronoun ; as, "those books," not "*them* books."

3. *Either* is sometimes used improperly for *each* ; as, "Nadab and Abihu took *either* of them his censer." Grammatically, this means that only one of them took a censer, whereas the

meaning intended is that they both did so. It should be "each."

4. The noun is often understood after adjective pronouns. In such cases, supply the noun, and parse as usual; as, "Let each . . . do his duty."

MODEL FOR PARSING.

"James wrote *this* letter." "This" is a dem. adj. pron., belonging to "letter," according to Rule X. (Quote), and is in the singular number, to agree with "letter," according to Note 1, Rule X. (Quote.)

(N. B.—In parsing any other adjective pronoun, except the distributives and indefinites, the last part of the Model must be omitted.)

EXERCISES.

Parse the Adjective Pronouns in the following sentences, supplying omissions, and correcting where necessary:

Those men only are great, who are good.

Those men who despise the admonitions of their friends, deserve the evils which their own obstinacy brings upon them.

Those sort of people fear nothing.

Who broke this scissors?

He adhered strictly to his profession, and by those means gained success.

Virtue and vice are as opposite to each other as light and darkness; this ennobles the mind, that debases it.

Them kind of favors did real injury.

The king of Israel and the king of Judah sat either of them on his throne.

Such as are diligent will be rewarded.

Some are naturally timid, others are bold and active.

Give to each his own.

This oats is of those species called wild oats.

These sort of vegetable productions are considered mere weeds.

In the Bible, tares and wheat are used to represent mankind; that, to denote the good, and this, the bad.

Either of them Siamese twins are so joined to the other at the breast that one cannot move without the other.

Either side of that square field is of the same length as the three others.

Some whom I considered my enemies, assisted, while none really pitied me; each one who rendered me assistance, did so because their conscience, and not their love for me, prompted them.

REVIEW.

Parse all the other Pronouns, Nouns, Adjectives, Articles, and Verbs in the foregoing sentences.

RULE XI.

A PARTICIPLE BELONGS TO THE NOUN OR THE PRONOUN WHICH IT QUALIFIES.

NOTES.

1. The participle is often used as a noun, both in the nominative case and in the objective; as, "*Writing* letters is easier than writing compositions" (nom.); "*In writing* letters he soon became expert" (obj.). In these instances, the participle, as a part of the verb, retains its government of the objective. (See Appendix 32.)

2. The participle used as a noun, is frequently found governing another noun in the possessive case; as, "Much depends on *John's* writing his letters rapidly."

3. The participle is sometimes used as a noun merely; as, "Avoid foolish *talking* and *jesting*." When so used, parse the word simply as a noun in the third person, neuter gender.

4. The participle is sometimes used simply as an adjective; as, "*Singing* birds abound in summer," "He is a *learned* man." When a participle is so used, call it a participial adjective, and parse it as any other adjective.

5. When a participial noun has an article before it, it should have "of" after it; as, "*The* learning *of* Greek," not "*The*

learning Greek." In such sentences, the article and the preposition should either both be used, or both omitted. The latter is by far the most common.

6. When the article and the preposition are both used in connection with a participial noun, the meaning is generally the same as when they are both omitted. Thus, "*The learning of languages*," means the same as "learning languages." This, however, is not always the case; as, "He confessed the whole *in the hearing of* three witnesses," "The court spent an hour *in hearing* the witnesses." It is perhaps impossible to give a rule which shall direct in all cases when to use, and when to omit the article and the preposition.

7. The participles of the verb *to be* may have a noun or a pronoun after them in apposition with the one before them; as, "Thomas, being an apt *scholar*, won the favor of his teacher." This rule applies also to the participles of many other intransitive verbs, and likewise to the participles of the passive voice of some transitive verbs; as, "Solomon, while reigning *king*, built the temple," "Washington, being appointed *commander-in-chief*, proceeded at once to Cambridge."

8. The participles of the verb *to be*, when used as participial nouns, may have a noun after them used indefinitely; as, "His being a good *penman* soon gained him employment." Here, "penman" is not nominative to "gained," nor is it in apposition with anything understood before "being," but must be parsed as used indefinitely after the participle "being." This rule applies also to the participles of many other intransitive verbs, and likewise to the participles of the passive voice of some transitive verbs; as, "Living a consistent *Christian*, is not easy," "Being called a *Roman*, was counted a great honor."

9. A participle may be used indefinitely after the infinitive of the verb *to be*, used as a noun; as, "To be for ever in one place, *doing* nothing, would be intolerable." "Doing," here, belongs to no noun, that is, it is used indefinitely. This rule applies also to participles after the infinitive mood of many other intransitive verbs, and likewise of some transitive verbs

in the passive voice; as, "To remain *doing* nothing, would be intolerable," "To be found *stealing*, is a disgrace."

10. When the noun to which a participle belongs is in the nominative absolute, this fact should always be mentioned in parsing the participle.

11. Care should be taken not to confound the past tense and the perfect participle; as, "He *began* to write," not "He *begun* to write;" "He *did* it," not "He *done* it;" "He *saw* it," not "He *seen* it," &c.

12. Care should be taken not to use the past tense instead of the perfect participle after the auxiliaries *to have* and *to be*; as, "He has *gone* home," not "He has *went* home;" "It was *written*," not "It was *wrote*."

MODEL FOR PARSING.

"James, *having written* a letter, sent it to the Post-office."
 "Having written" is a comp. perf. part., act. v., of the irr. trans. verb "to write" (write, wrote, written), and belongs to "James," according to Rule XI. (Quote.)

EXERCISES.

Parse the Participles in the following sentences, correcting where necessary:

Knowledge, softened by good breeding, makes a man beloved and admired.

Having finished his speech, he descended from the platform.

The youthful poet, while walking alone in the woods, fell into a reverie.

Precept has little influence, if not enforced by example.

True honor, as defined by Cicero, is the concurrent approbation of good men.

Much depends on the pupil observing the rules.

What is the reason of this person dismissing his servant so hastily?

I remember it being done.

The learning anything speedily requires great application.

By the exercising our faculties they are improved.

By observing of these rules you may avoid mistakes.

This was a betraying the trust reposed in him.

His being called a wit, did not make him one.

The atrocious crime of being a young man, I shall attempt neither to palliate nor to deny.

The sun rising, darkness flees away.

Thus repulsed, our final hope is flat despair.

He soon begun to be weary of having nothing to do.

He was greatly heated, and he drunk with avidity.

I would have wrote a letter.

He had mistook his true interest.

The coat had no seam, but was wove throughout.

The French language is spoke in every kingdom in Europe.

Having taken much medicine, and continuing to grow worse, my distressed mother said that giving me medicine seemed useless. Travelling was then tried with encouraging signs of my growing better.

His lesson being learned, and his other duties having been performed, he was to have a ride on horseback, he selecting the route to be taken.

Him being my father, I love him with all his faults; they knowing this, I cannot see what pleasure they can have in ridiculing him in my presence.

Breaking of windows by the throwing stones is a species of mischief which is as wrong as dishonesty.

Being honest is better than being a rich man and dishonest: to be continually cheating our fellows must create unhappiness.

Having been educated a teacher, I must follow my profession.

William done an act of injustice which he had frequently did; he has forgot that God has saw him, and he has laid his head upon his pillow without asking forgiveness.

When the Pilgrims had come to America, the streams were froze, the birds had flew to warmer regions; the fierce wintry wind blowed; they had been drove from their comfortable homes. To forsake the land of their birth was indeed sad; but to have forsook their faith, would have showed a want of sincerity and fortitude.

[Explain the difference between the following expressions:]

The children were amused by the dancing of the monkey.

The children were amused by dancing the monkey.

The teacher explained the lesson in the hearing of his class.

The teacher explained the lesson in hearing his class.

REVIEW.

Parse all the other words in the foregoing sentences, except the Adverbs and the Conjunctions.

RULE XII.

AN ADVERB BELONGS TO THE VERB, ADJECTIVE, OR OTHER ADVERB WHICH IT QUALIFIES.

NOTES.

1. Adverbs are generally placed before adjectives, after verbs, and often between the auxiliary and the verb; as, "He is *very* attentive," "She behaves *well*." "They are *much* esteemed." This rule is far from being universal in its application. It is in fact impossible to give any one rule which shall determine the position of the adverb in all circumstances.

2. Adverbs should not be used where adjectives are required, that is, to qualify nouns or pronouns. Thus, "He dressed in a style *conformable* to the ruling fashion," not "*conformably*." "The dress looked *pretty*," not "*prettily*." "Pretty," here, is an adjective describing "dress," and does not qualify the verb "looked." It does not express the manner of looking.

3. *From* should not be used before *hence*, *thence*, and *whence*, because it is implied. Custom, however, has in a great measure sanctioned the violation of this rule.

4. *Hither*, *thither*, and *whither*, were formerly used after verbs of motion. They are now used only on solemn occasions. Thus, "Come *here*," not "Come *hither*."

5. *Where* and *when* are often incorrectly used instead of *which* and its adjuncts; as, "The situation *where* (in which) I found him," "Since *when* (which time) I have not seen him."

6. *How* should not be used for *that*; as, "He said *how* he would do it." It should be "that."

7. *No* never qualifies a verb. Hence, when there is an ellipsis of the verb, *no* is sometimes incorrectly used instead of *not*; as, "Will you walk or *no*?" It should be "not," as will be seen by supplying the ellipsis. Thus, "Will you walk, or (will you) *not* (walk)?"

8. *Nay*, *no*, and *yea*, *yes*, expressing simply negation and affirmation, contain in themselves a complete sense, and do not belong to any verb.

9. Two negatives are improper, if intended to express the same negation. When so used, they destroy each other, and are equivalent to an affirmative. Thus, "I *cannot* by *no* means allow it," should be, "I can by no means allow it," or, "I cannot by any means allow it."

10. Sometimes, when one of the negatives (such as *dis*, *in*, *un*, *im*, &c.) is joined to another word, the two negatives form a pleasing and delicate mode of affirming; as, "His language, though simple, is *not inelegant*," that is, "It is elegant."

MODEL FOR PARSING.

"James wrote a letter *hastily*." "Hastily" is an adv. in the pos. deg. (hastily, more hastily, most hastily), and belongs to the verb "wrote," according to Rule XII. (Quote.)

EXERCISES.

A very smart child may learn more rapidly than is desirable.
Economy, prudently conducted, leads very rapidly to wealth.
She is particularly beautiful.

The most cautious are frequently deceived.

We should not be overcome totally by present events.

He unaffectedly and forcibly spoke, and was heard attentively
by the whole assembly.

He lived in a manner agreeably to the dictates of reason and
religion.

They hoped for a soon and prosperous issue to the war.

He drew up a paper, where he too frequently represented his own merit.

He left Philadelphia last December, since when he has not been heard of.

Whether you study or no, you never know the lesson at the time of recitation. You don't do nothing correct.

He did not say whether his father would consent or no.

He will never be no taller.

They could not travel no farther.

Covet neither riches, or honors, or no such perishing things.

It was cold exceedingly; the north wind incessantly blew; I have experienced seldom so severe a winter.

This is an often error made by children; it is of seldom occurrence in writing.

She looks coldly, she is not warm enough dressed.

Some persons are of such a nature that they look cold upon those who treat them affectionate.

He arrived at the house where I live, but started from thence immediately.

REVIEW.

Parse all the other words in the foregoing sentences, except the Conjunctions.

RULE XIII.

THE INFINITIVE MOOD IS GOVERNED BY THE VERB, ADJECTIVE, OR NOUN ON WHICH IT DEPENDS.

NOTES.

1. *To*, the sign of the infinitive, is generally omitted after the active voice of the verbs *bid*, *dare* (to venture), *need*, *make*, *see*, *hear*, *feel*, *let*, and some others; as, "I saw him (to) do it." In the passive voice of these verbs, however, the "to" is generally expressed; as, "He was seen *to* do it." (See Appendix 33.)

2. *To*, the sign of the infinitive, should not be separated from the verb by inserting another word. Thus, "I am resolved to not go," should be, "I am resolved not to go."

3. The infinitive seems sometimes to depend upon other parts of speech, besides those enumerated in the rule. Thus, "Be so good *as* (conjunction) to read this letter." In such cases, the sentence is elliptical. Thus, "Be so good *as* (you must be, *in order*) to read this letter."

4. The infinitive is sometimes used apparently without dependence upon any word; as, "To speak plainly, I do not entirely approve your conduct." This construction is elliptical; as, "*(in order)* to speak plainly," &c.

5. The infinitive mood is frequently used as a noun, and at the same time retains its government of the objective case. Thus, "To write letters is easy." Here, "to write," as a noun, is nominative to "is," and at the same time, as a verb, governs "letters."

6. TENSE OF THE INFINITIVE.—Whenever the action or event signified by the infinitive, is contemporary or future with respect to the verb on which it depends, the present tense of the infinitive is required. Hence, verbs expressive of hope, desire, intention, or command, must invariably be followed by the present, and not the perfect infinitive. Thus, "I expected to have found him," should be, "I expected to find him."

MODEL FOR PARSING.

"James tried *to write* a letter." "To write" is a trans. verb, irr., act. v., inf. m., pres. t., and governed by the verb "tried," according to Rule XIII. (Quote.)

EXERCISES.

A man anxious to reach home, will aim to be at the station in time to secure his seat.

A good man loves to do good. They have a wish to learn.

He has written some things hard to be understood.

The desire to be rich is one of the strongest of human desires.

A man eager to learn the truth is not apt to fall into error.

She is worthy to be loved. They need not to call her.

I dare not to proceed so hastily. He bade me to go home.

He was seen write the letter.

It is the difference of their conduct which makes us to approve the one, and to reject the other.

He was seen do it, though I heard his father to tell him not to do it.

Help me to finish this work, and you will not notice the time to pass so slowly.

I did not intend for to hurt him.

This is for to let you know how I am well.

He begged to have been released from his prison.

To live righteously, soberly, and godly, is required of all men.

To be temperate in eating and drinking, to use exercise in the open air, and to preserve the mind from tumultuous emotions, are the best preservatives of health.

[Supply the ellipses in the following.]

I am not so stupid as to make such an error.

To be candid with you, I must say, you did wrong.

Not to leave you under the impression that I was one of your supporters, I did not vote for you.

RULE XIV.

A CONJUNCTION CONNECTS THE WORDS OR SENTENCES BETWEEN WHICH IT STANDS.

NOTES.

1. There is sometimes an ellipsis of one of the words or sentences, giving an appearance of a conjunction not truly connective; as, "*That* John has written his letter, is easily proved." Here, "*that*" seems simply to introduce a clause which is the subject of the verb. But by supplying the ellipsis, "(the fact) *that* John has written," &c., the true connective character of the conjunction appears.

2. Words and clauses are often connected not by a single conjunction, but by two conjunctions or a conjunction and an adverb, corresponding to each other; as, "Give me *neither* poverty *nor* riches."

3. The following is a list of the principal conjunctions that have a corresponding conjunction or adverb:

Neither, ——— *nor*; as, It is neither cold nor hot.

Either, ——— *or*; as, Either she or her sister must go.

Whether, ——— *or*; as, Whether he will do it or not, I cannot say.

Though, ——— *yet*; as, Though he was rich, yet for our sakes, &c.

If, ——— *then*; as, If he speaks true, then you speak false.

Both, ——— *and*; as, I am debtor both to the Greeks, and to the Barbarians.

Not only, ——— *but also*; as, Not only his character, but also his life was at stake.

As, { ——— *as*; as, My land is as good as yours (equality).
 { ——— *so*; as, As the stars, so shall thy seed be (equality or proportion). (See Appendix 34.)

So, { ——— *as*; He is not so wise as his brother (denying equality).
 { ——— *that*; I am so weak that I cannot walk (consequence).

4. The comparative degree, and the words *other*, *rather*, and *else*, are generally followed by *than*; as, "John is greater *than* James."

5. After *than* there is almost always an ellipsis of several words. In supplying these words, the latter clause must be made analogous to the preceding; as, "John has written more than James (*has written*)."

6. Conjunctions generally connect the same moods and tenses of verbs; as, "He reads and writes well;" and the same cases of nouns and pronouns; as, "I saw him and her."

7. When conjunctions connect verbs in the same mood and tense, the nominative is generally not repeated; but when the verbs connected are in different moods or tenses, the nominative should be repeated before each; as, "He may return, but he will not remain." The nominative is also often repeated when, in the progress of the sentence, we pass from the positive

form of expression to the negative, or the contrary, or when a contrast is made; "Though I admire him greatly, yet I do *not* love him" (from pos. to neg.), "Though he was rich, *yet* he became poor" (contrast), &c.

MODEL FOR PARSING.

"James *and* John are brothers." "And" is a conjunction, connecting "James" and "John," according to Rule XIV. (Quote.)

EXERCISES.

Parse all the words in the following sentences, correcting and supplying ellipses, where necessary:

Forget the faults of others, and remember your own.

Study universal rectitude, and cherish religious hope.

Practise humility, and reject everything in dress, carriage, or conversation, which has any appearance of pride.

If ye do these things, ye shall never fail.

It is neither cold or hot.

Neither despise the poor, or envy the rich.

Though he slay me, so will I trust him.

So as thy days, so shall thy strength be.

He was as angry as he could not speak.

He has little more of the scholar besides the name.

He or me must go. Neither he nor her can attend.

Anger glances into the heart of a wise man, but will rest only in the bosom of fools.

To profess regard, and acting differently, mark a base mind.

Rank may confer influence, but will not necessarily produce virtue.

She was proud, though now humble.

He is not rich, but is respectable.

[Supply the ellipses.]

The story was not believed — we were defeated.

Wood is not — durable — iron.

One hour is — long — another.

He ate so much — he became sick.

As he treated others, — he expected to be treated by them.

Though he was severe with the vicious, — he was lenient to those who tried to do right.

It was done better by him than — me

Washington was a better man than Napoleon —.

The teacher ought to know more than his scholars —.

I was your enemy, but now am your friend.

He is his friend to-day, but may be his enemy to-morrow.

INTERJECTIONS.

1. An Interjection has no dependence upon other words. In parsing an interjection, all that is necessary is to tell what part of speech it is.

2. Sometimes interjections have the appearance of governing the objective case; as, "Ah me!" But such sentences are always elliptical, some verb or preposition being understood; as, "Ah! (pity) me."

MISCELLANEOUS EXERCISES

TO BE CORRECTED AND PARSED.

1. John writes pretty. 2. I shall never do so no more. 3. The train of our ideas are often interrupted. 4. Was you present at the last meeting? 5. He dare not act otherwise than he does. 6. Him whom they seek is in the house. 7. George or I is the person. 8. They or he is much to be blamed. 9. The troop consist of fifty men. 10. Those set of books was a valuable present.

11. A pillar sixty foot high. 12. His conduct evinced the most extreme vanity. 13. These trees are remarkable tall. 14. He acted bolder than was expected. 15. This is he who I gave the book to. 16. From whence came they? 17. Who do you lodge with now? 18. The Select Council was not unanimous in its opinion. 19. If he be sincere I am satisfied. 20. Her father and her were at church.

21. The master requested him and I to read more distinctly. 22. It is no more but his due. 23. Flatterers flatter as long, and no longer than they have expectations of gain. 24. John told the same story which you did. 25. This is the largest tree which I have ever seen. 26. Let he and I read the next chapter. 27. Those sort of dealings are unjust. 28. David the son of Jesse was the youngest of his brothers. 29. You was very kind to him, he said. 30. Well, said I, what does thou think of him now?

31. James is one of those boys that was kept in at school, for bad behaviour. 32. Thou, James, did deny the deed. 33. Neither good nor evil come of themselves. 34. We need not to be afraid. 35. He expected to have gained more by the bargain. 36. You should have drank goat's milk. 37. It was him who spoke first. 38. Is it me that you mean? 39. Who did you buy your grammar from? 40. If one takes a wrong method at first setting out, it will lead them astray.

41. Neither man nor woman were present. 42. I am more taller than you. 43. She is the same lady who sang so sweetly. 44. After the most straitest sect of our religion, I lived a Pharisee. 45. There was more sophists than one. 46. If a person have lived twenty or thirty years, he should have some experience. 47. If this were his meaning, the prediction has failed. 48. Fidelity and truth is the foundation of all justice. 49. And when they had went out, they saw no man there save Jesus only. 50. Strive not with a man without cause, if he have done thee no harm.

51. I wrote to, and cautioned the captain against it. 52. The girl's book it is torn in pieces. 53. It is not me who he is in love with. 54. He which commands himself, commands the whole world. 55. Nothing is more lovelier than virtue. 56. The people's happiness is the statesman's honour. 57. Changed to a wcrser shape thou canst not be. 58. I have drunk no spirituous liquors this six years. 59. He is taller than me, but I am stronger than him. 60. Solid peace and contentment consists neither in beauty or riches, but in the favour of God.

61. After who is the King of Israel come out? 62. The reciprocations of love and friendship between he and I, have been

many and sincere. 63. Abuse of mercies ripen us for judgment. 64. Peter and John is not at school to-day. 65. Three of them was taken into custody. 66. To study diligently, and behave genteelly, is commendable. 67. The enemies who we have most to fear are those of our own hearts. 68. Suppose life never so long, fresh accessions of knowledge may still be made. 69. Surely thou who reads so much in the Bible, can tell me what became of Elijah. 70. Neither the master nor the scholar is reading.

71. Trust not him, whom, you know, is dishonest. 72. I love no interests but that of truth and virtue. 73. Every imagination of the thoughts of the heart are evil continually. 74. No one can be blamed for taking due care of their health. 75. They crucified him, and two others with him, on either side one, and Jesus in the midst. 76. I have read Popes Homer, and Drydens Virgil. 77. He that is diligent you should commend. 78. There was an earthquake which made the earth to tremble. 79. He was very much made on at school. 80. Though he were a son, yet learned he obedience by the things which he suffered.

81. If he is alone tell him the news; but if there is anybody with him, do not tell him. 82. They ride faster than us. 83. Though the measure be mysterious, it is worthy of attention. 84. If he does but approve my endeavours, it will be an ample reward. 85. Was it him who came last? Yes, it was him. 86. I shall take care that no one shall suffer no injury. 87. Every man should act suitable to his character and station in life. 88. His arguments were exceeding clear. 89. I only spoke three words on that subject. 90. The ant and the bee sets a good example before dronish boys.

91. Evil communications corrupts good manners. 92. Hannibal was one of the greatest generals whom the world ever saw. 93. The middle station of life seems to be the most advantageously situated for gaining of wisdom. 94. These are the rules of grammar, by the observing which you may avoid mistakes. 95. Take care, little children, lest the dog bites you. 96. My exercises are not well wrote, I do not hold my pen well. 97. Grammar teaches us to speak proper. 98. She accused her

companion for having betrayed her. 99. I will not dissent with her. 100. Who shall I give it to?

101. Who are you looking for? 102. That is a book which I am much pleased with. 103. That picture of the emperor's is a very exact resemblance of him. 104. Every thing that we here enjoy, change, decay, and come to an end. 105. It is not him they blame so much. 106. No people has more faults than they that pretend to have none. 107. The laws of Draco is said to have been wrote with blood. 108. It is so clear, or so obvious, as I need not explain it. 109. She taught him and I to read. 110. The greater a bad man's accomplishments are, the more dangerous he is to society, and the more less fit for a companion.

111. Each has their own faults, and every one should endeavour to correct their own. 112. Let your promises be few, and such that you can perform. 113. His being at enmity with Cæsar and Antony were the cause of perpetual discord. 114. Their being forced to their books in an age at enmity with all restraint, have been the reason why many have hated books all their lives. 115. Do not despise the state of the poor, lest it becomes your own condition. 116. It was his duty to have interposed his authority in an affair of so much importance. 117. He spent his whole life in the doing good. 118. Every gentleman who frequented the house, and conversed with the erectors of this occasional club, were invited to pass an evening when they thought fit. 119. The winter has not been so severe as we expected it to have been. 120. A lampoon, or a satire, does not carry in them robbery or murder.

121. She and you were not mistaken in her conjectures. 122. My sister and I, as well as my brother, are employed in their respective occupations. 123. He repents him of that indiscreet action. 124. It was me, and not him, that wrote it. 125. Art thou him? 126. I am a man who approves of wholesome discipline, and who recommend it to others; but I am not a person who promotes severity, or who object to mild and generous treatment. 127. Prosperity, as truly asserted by Seneca, it very much obstructs the knowledge of ourselves. 128. To do to others as we would that they should do to us, it is our duty

129. This grammar was purchased at Ogle's the bookseller's.

130. The council was not unanimous.

131. Who spilt the ink upon the table? Him. 132. Who lost this book? Me. 133. Whose pen is this? John's. 134. There is in fact no impersonal verbs in any language. 135. A man may see a metaphor or an allegory in a picture, as well as read them in a description. 136. I had no sooner placed her at my right hand, by the fire, but she opened to me the reason of her visit. 137. A prudent wife, she shall be blessed. 138. The house you speak of, it cost me five hundred pounds. 139. Not only the counsel's and attorney's, but the judge's opinion also favored his cause. 140. The vicious inclined dog was shot before he had bit any of the children.

141. This palace has been the grand Sultan's Mahomet's. 142. They did not every man cast away the abomination of their eyes. 143. Whose works are these? They are Cicero, the most eloquent of men's. 144. The mighty rivals are now at length agreed. 145. The time of William making the experiment, at length arrived. 146. If we alter the situation of any of the words, we shall presently be sensible of the melody suffering. 147. This picture of the king's does not much resemble him. 148. These pictures of the king were sent to him from Italy. 149. I offer observations, that a long and chequered pilgrimage have enabled me to make on man. 150. Clelia is a vain woman, who, if we do not flatter, she will be disgusted.

151. The orators did not forget to enlarge themselves on so popular a subject. 152. He acted conformable with his instructions, and cannot be censured justly. 153. No person could speak stronger, nor behave nobler, than our young advocate, for the cause of true religious toleration. 154. They were studious to ingratiate with those who it was dishonourable to favour. 155. The house framed a remonstrance, where they spoke with great freedom of the king's prerogative. 156. Neither flatter or condemn the rich or the great. 157. Many would exchange gladly their honours, beauty and riches, for that more quiet and humbler station, which thou art now dissatisfied with. 158. High hopes, and florid views, is a great enemy to tranquillity.

159. Many persons will not believe but what they are free from prejudices. 160. I will lie me down in peace, and take my rest.

161. This word I have only found in Spenser. 162. The king being apprized of the conspiracy, he fled from Jerusalem. 163. A too great variety of studies dissipate and weaken the mind. 164. James was resolved to not indulge himself in such a cruel amusement. 165. They admired the countryman's, as they called him, candour and uprightness. 166. The pleasure or pain of one passion differ from those of another. 167. The court of Spain, who gave the order, were not aware of the consequences. 168. There was much spoke and wrote on each side of the question; but I have chose to suspend my decision. 169. Religion raises men above themselves; irreligion sinks them beneath the brutes; that binds them down to a poor pitiable speck of perishable earth; this opens for them a prospect to the skies. 170. Temperance and exercise, howsoever little they may be regarded, they are the best means of preserving health.

171. To despise others on account of their poverty, or to value ourselves for our wealth, are dispositions highly culpable. 172. As his misfortunes were the fruit of his own obstinacy, a few persons pitied him. 173. And they were judged every man according to their works. 174. Riches is the bane of human happiness. 175. When Garrick appeared, Peter was for some time in doubt whether it could be him or not. 176. The company was very numerous. 177. Shall the throne of iniquity have fellowship with thee, which frameth mischief by a law? 178. Nor let no comforter delight my ear. 179. They were obliged to contribute more than us. 180. The Barons had little more to rely on, besides the power of their families.

181. The sewers must be kept so clear, as the water may run away. 182. Such among us who follow that profession. 183. No body is so sanguine to hope for it. 184. She behaved unkindly than I expected. 185. Agreeable to your request I send this letter. 186. She is exceeding fair. 187. Thomas is not as docile as his sister. 188. There was no other book but this. 189. He died by a fever. 190. My sister and I waited till they were called.

191. The friends and amusements which he preferred con-

rupted his morals. 192. Henry, though at first he showed an unwillingness, yet afterwards he granted his request. 193. Him and her live very happily together. 194. She invited Jane and I to see her new dress. 195. She uttered such cries that pierced the heart of every one who heard them. 196. Maria is not as clever as her sister Ann. 197. Though he promises ever so solemnly, I will not believe him. 198. The full moon was no sooner up, in all its brightness, but he opened to them the gate of paradise. 199. It rendered the progress very slow of the new invention. 200. This book is 'Thomas', that is James'.

201. Who, who has the judgment of a man, would have drawn such an inference? 202. George was the most diligent scholar whom I ever knew. 203. I have observed some children to use deceit. 204. He durst not to displease his master. 205. The hopeless delinquents might, each in their turn, adopt the expository language of Job. 206. Several of our English words, some centuries ago, had different meanings to those they have now. 207. With this booty, he made off to a distant part of the country, where he had reason to believe that neither he nor his master were known. 208. I have gone at Philadelphia. 209. Which of the two masters, says Seneca, shall we most esteem? He who strives to correct his scholars by prudent advice and motives of honour, or another who will lash them severely for not repeating their lessons as they ought! 210. But she always behaved with great severity to her maids; and if any one of them were negligent of their duty, or made a slip in their conduct, nothing would serve her but burying the poor girls alive.

211. They that honour me, I will honour. 212. For the poor always ye have with you. 213. The first Christians of the gentile world made a simple and entire transition from a state as bad, if not worse, than that of entire ignorance, to the Christianity of the New Testament. 214. The Duke had not behaved with that loyalty as was expected. 215. Milton seems to have been well acquainted with his own genius, and to know what it was that nature had bestowed upon him more bountifully than upon others. 216. He only promised me a loan of the book for two days. 217. I was once intending to have written a poem. 218. A very slow child will often be found to get lessons by heart as

soon as, nay, sometimes sooner, than one who is ten times as intelligent. 219. It is then from a cultivation of the perceptive faculties, that we only can attain those powers of conception which are essential to taste. 220. No man is fit for free conversation for the inquiry after truth, if he be exceedingly reserved; if he be haughty and proud of his knowledge; if he be positive and dogmatical in his opinions; if he be one who always affects to outshine all the company; if he be fretful and peevish; if he affect wit, and is full of puns, or quirks, or quibbles.

221. Conversation is the business, and let every one that please add their opinion freely. 222. There are many more shining qualities in the mind of man, but there is none so useful as discretion. 223. Frequent commission of crimes harden his heart. 224. In our earliest youth the contagion of manners are observable. 225. The pyramids of Egypt has stood more than three thousand years. 226. A few pangs of conscience now and then interrupts his pleasure, and whispers to him that he once had better thoughts. 227. There is more cultivators of the earth than of their own hearts. 228. Nothing but vain and foolish pursuits delight some persons. 229. Not one of those whom thou sees clothed in purple are happy. 230. Wisdom, virtue, happiness, dwells with the golden mediocrity.

231. Luxurious living and high pleasures begets a langour and satiety which destroys all enjoyment. 232. The modest virgin, the prudent wife, or the careful matron, are much more serviceable in life than petticoated philosophers. 233. Man is not such a machine as a clock or a watch, which move merely as they are moved. 234. My brother and him are tolerable grammarians. 235. The parliament addressed the king, and has been prorogued the same day. 236. I have seen some young persons to conduct themselves very discreetly. 237. We heard the thunder roll. 238. It is a great support to virtue, when we see a good mind to maintain its patience and tranquillity under injuries and afflictions, and to cordially forgive its oppressors. 239. The flock, and not the fleece, are, or ought to be, the object of the shepherd's care. 240. When the nation complain, the rulers should listen to their voice.

241. I saw one whom I took to be she. 242. Let him be

whom he may, I am not afraid of him. 243. Who do you think him to be? 244. I am certain it was not him. 245. I believe it to have been they. 246. It might have been him. 247. It is impossible to be them. 248. It was either him or his brother that gained the first prize. 249. If he is but discreet he will succeed. 250. If he be but in health, I am content.

251. If he does but intimate his desire, it will produce obedience. 252. It is so clear as I need not explain it. 253. The relations are so uncertain, as that they require a great deal of examination. 254. The one is equally deserving as the other. 255. As far as I am able to judge, the book is well written. 256. His raiment was so white as snow. 257. The not attending to this rule is the cause of a very common error. 258. The horse was stole. 259. They have chose the part of honour and virtue. 260. The Rhine was froze over.

261. She was showed into the drawing-room. 262. My people have slid backwards. 263. He has broke the bottle. 264. Some fell by the way-side, and was trode down. 265. The price of cloth has lately rose very much. 266. The work was very well began. 267. His vices have weakened his mind, and broke his health. 268. He would have went with us, had he been invited. 269. Can any person on their entrance into life, be fully secure that they shall not be deceived? 270. The chasm made by the earthquake was twenty foot broad, and one hundred fathom in depth.

271. There is six foot water in the hold. 272. I have no interests but that of truth and virtue. 273. Those sort of favours did real injury. 274. Thou who has been a witness of the fact, can give an account of it. 275. The child which was lost is found. 276. I am the person who adopt that sentiment and maintains it. 277. Thou art a pupil who possesses bright parts, but who hast cultivated them but little. 278. Thou art the friend that hast often relieved me, and that has not deserted me now in the time of peculiar need. 279. The soldiers, with a single exception, who passed for the bravest man in the regiment, offered their services. 280. Either I or thou am greatly mistaken.

281. He or I is sure of this week's prize. 282. Either Thomas or thou has spilt the ink on my paper. 283. John or I has done

it. 284. He or thou is the person who must go to London on that business. 285. The candidate being chosen was owing to the influence of party. 286. The winter has not been as severe as we expected it to have been. 287. Him and her were of the same age. 288. If the night have gathered aught of evil, disperse it. 289. Neither poverty nor riches was injurious to him. 290. He or they was offended at it.

291. Whether one or more was concerned in the business, does not yet appear. 292. The cares of this life, or the deceitfulness of riches, has choked the seeds of virtue in many a promising mind. 293. Disappointments and afflictions, however disagreeable, they often improve us. 294. Simple and innocent pleasures, they alone are durable. 295. Which rule, if it had been observed, a neighbouring prince would have wanted a great deal of that incense which has been offered up to him. 296. Man, though he has great variety of thoughts, and such, from which others as well as himself might receive profit and delight, yet they are all within his own breast. 297. That warm climates should accelerate the growth of the human body, and shorten its duration, are very reasonable to believe. 298. That it is our duty to promote the purity of our minds and bodies, to be just and kind to our fellow-creatures, and to be pious and faithful to him who made us, admit not of any doubt in a rational and well-informed mind. 299. The great power and force of custom forms another argument against keeping bad company. 300. Public spirit is a more universal principle than a sense of honour.

301. Do not interrupt me thyself, nor let no one disturb me. 302. I am resolved not to comply with the proposal, neither at present nor at any other time. 303. As far as I can judge, a spirit of independency and freedom, tempered by sentiments of decency and the love of order, influence, in a most remarkable manner, the minds of the subjects of this happy republic. 304. That it is our duty to be pious admit not of any doubt. 305. If he becomes very rich, he may be less industrious. 306. It was wrote extempore. 307. Romulus, which founded Rome, killed his brother Remus. 308. He was extreme prodigal, and his property is now near exhausted. 309. They lived conformable

to the rules of prudence. 310. He speaks very fluent, reads excellent, but does not think very coherent.

311. They came agreeable to their promise, and conducted themselves suitable to the occasion. 312. They hoped for a soon and prosperous issue to the war. 313. Such men that act treacherously ought to be avoided. 314. He gained nothing farther by his speech, but only to be commended for his eloquence. 315. This is none other but the gate of paradise. 316. Such sharp replies that cost him his life. 317. To trust in him is no more but to acknowledge his power. 318. I understood him the best of all others who spoke on the subject. 319. Eve was the fairest of all her daughters. 320. He is the likeliest of any other to succeed.

321. Jane is the wittier of the three, not the wiser. 322. John can write better than me. 323. He is as good as her. 324. Thou art a much greater loser than me by his death. 325. She suffers hourly more than me. 326. They know how to write as well as him; but he is a better grammarian than them. 327. The undertaking was much better executed by his brother than he. 328. They are greater gainers than us. 329. She is not so learned as him. 330. If the king give us leave, we may perform the office as well as them that do.

331. Let each esteem others better than themselves. 332. Every one of the letters bear date after his banishment. 333. Each of them, in their turn, receive the benefits to which they are entitled. 334. Every person, whatever be their station, are bound by the duties of morality and religion. 335. Neither of those men seem to have any idea that their opinions may be ill-founded. 336. By discussing what relates to each particular in their order, we shall better understand the subject. 337. Are either of these men your friend? 338. I always intended to have rewarded my son according to his merit. 339. We have done no more than it was our duty to have done. 340. From the little conversation I had with him, he appeared to have been a man of letters.

PROSODY.

617 **PROSODY** in the strict acceptation of the term, treats only of *versification*. For convenience in teaching, however, several other topics are usually either included under this head, or at least discussed in the same part of the book. Among these may be reckoned *Punctuation*, which properly belongs to Orthography (5); *Orthoepey*, or the right pronunciation of words, which properly belongs to the science of Elocution; and *Figures*, which belong more to Rhetoric than to Grammar. Still it seems desirable to give the student of grammar the means of knowing at least the nomenclature, and some of the more important principles of these subjects. As they cannot be attended to with advantage till the student is familiar with the general principles of grammar, they are treated of under the same head with Prosody, which is always, and rightfully, the last point of grammar that the student learns. Under the fourth head of grammar, therefore, four topics will be considered, viz. **PUNCTUATION** **ORTHOEPEY**, **FIGURES**, and **VERSIFICATION**.

PUNCTUATION.

618. Punctuation treats of the use of capital letters, and of the various points and characters, other than letters, that are used in writing.

CAPITALS.

619. In ancient writings, all the letters were capitals, and followed each other continuously, without being divided into words and sentences, either by points or by separation in space. Small letters were first introduced about the seventh century. For many centuries after the introduction of the small letters, capitals continued to be used much more than they are now. Nouns in particular, whether proper or common, always commenced with a capital. Writers and printers now vary somewhat in regard to the use of capitals, but the following rules may be considered as exhibiting present usage as nearly as it can be ascertained.

620. The *title page* of a book, and the *headings of chapters*, should be printed entirely in capitals.

621. In *quoting* the title of a book, every noun and other principal word should begin with a capital; as, "Sparks' Life of Washington."

622. The first word of every book, chapter, letter, note, or writing of any kind, should begin with a capital; also, the first word after a *period* or a note of *interrogation*; and the first word in every line of *poetry*.

623. All names and titles of the *Deity* begin with a capital; as, God, Jehovah, the Almighty, the Supreme Being.

624. All *proper names* and titles of office or honour; as, John, Washington, Baltimore, Broadway, Chief Justice Taney, General Cadwallader, United States Gazette, &c.; also, *adjectives derived from proper names*; as, American, Pennsylvanian, Spanish, English, French, &c.

625. The first word of an *example* or *quotation*, following a semicolon, begins with a capital; as, "Temperance promotes health."

626. The Pronoun I, and the interjection O, are always capitals.

The Points in general.

627. THE POINTS now used in writing, as well as the distinction between small letters and capitals, were entirely unknown among the ancients. Aristophanes, a grammarian of Alexandria, about two centuries and a half before the Christian era, is said to have invented some contrivance of the kind. Whatever his invention was, it was subsequently lost, or at least never came into general use, and an attempt to revive it in the time of Charlemagne, met with only partial success. Some few marks of punctuation seem to have come gradually into use, but without any fixed or uniform usage. At length, in the fifteenth century, soon after the invention of printing, Aldus Manutius, a learned printer of Venice, increased the number of signs, established rules for their use, and reduced the art to nearly the condition in which it now exists. As in regard to the use of capitals, so here there is some discrepancy among writers and printers in their mode of punctuation. The following rules, however, are believed to exhibit the established usage, so far as such a usage exists, or can be ascertained.

628. The principal characters used in punctuation are the Comma (,), Semicolon (;), Colon (:), Period (.), and Interrogation (?), which are related to each other; also the Exclamation (!), Dash (—), Parenthesis () Apostrophe ('), &c. The period and interrogation are considered as marking a complete sentence. The colon marks a portion of a sentence subordinate to the period, the semicolon subordinate to the colon, and the comma subordinate to the semicolon. Hence, a comma marks the smallest portion into which a sentence can be divided.

THE COMMA.

629. In a *simple sentence* (409), when the subject of the verb is not a single word, but the nominative with several adjuncts, a comma is usually inserted before the verb; as, "A steady and undivided attention to one object, is a sure mark of a superior mind."

630. In *compound sentences*, the different members are separated by commas; as, "Crafty men condemn studies, simple men admire them, and wise men use them;" except where the members are very short, or very closely connected; as, "Revelation tells us *how* we may attain happiness."

631. Two words connected by a conjunction *expressed*, do not admit a comma between them; as, "The *earth* and the *moon* are planets;" "He *catches* and *arrests* the hours;" "He *acts prudently* and *vigorously*." When, however, the conjunction is *not* expressed, a comma is inserted; as, "He is a *plain, honest* man; except where two adjectives express, not different qualities of the noun, but different modifications of the same quality; as, "A *dark brown* coat."

632. *More than two words* connected in construction, whether with or without a conjunction, have a comma after each; as, "Poetry, music, and painting, are fine arts." Except where the words so connected are adjectives. The last adjective in such a case should not be separated from the noun immediately following; as, "David was a brave, wise, and *prudent* prince."

633. *Words in pairs* take a comma between the pairs; as, "Anarchy and confusion, poverty and distress, desolation and ruin, are the consequences of civil war."

634. *Nouns in apposition* are separated by a comma whenever the latter noun is accompanied by several adjuncts; as, "Paul, *the apostle of the Gentiles*." If the last three words be omitted, no comma will be required; as, "Paul the apostle."

635. The *nominative independent*, and the *nominative absolute* (422, 423), with the words dependent on them, are separated by commas from the rest of the sentence; as, "My son, hear the instructions of thy father," "I remain, sir, your obedient servant," "The time of youth being precious, we should *devote it to improvement*."

636. *Comparative and antithetical clauses* are separated by a comma; thus, "As the hart panteth after the water-brooks, so doth my soul pant after thee," "Though deep, yet clear; though gentle, yet not dull." When the comparison is very short, the comma is omitted; as, "Wisdom is better *than* gold."

637. A short expression in the manner of a quotation is separated by commas; as, "Plutarch calls lying, *the vice* of slaves."

638. *Nay, so, hence, again, first, secondly, &c.*, when considered *important*, and particularly at the commencement of a sentence, must be separated from the context by a comma; as, "Again, our reputation does not depend on the caprice of man, but on our own good actions."

639. The *Relative with its clause* is usually separated from the rest of the sentence by commas; as, "He, who disregards the good opinion of the world, must be utterly abandoned." Except when the relative is so closely connected with the antecedent that they cannot be separated;" as, "Self-denial is the sacrifice *which* virtue must make."

640. *That, used as a conjunction*, is preceded by a comma; as, "Be virtuous, *that* you may be happy."

641. A *verb understood* requires a comma; as, "Reading makes a full man; conversation, a ready man; and writing, an exact man."

642. *As, thus, &c.*, used to introduce examples, or quotations, are separated by a comma; as, &c.

643. *Words repeated* are separated by a comma; as, "Holy, holy, holy art Thou."

644. *Inverted sentences*, by throwing two or more words out of their regular connexion, often require a comma; as, "To God, nothing is impossible." In the natural order it would be, "Nothing is impossible to God."

645. Adjectives, participles, adverbs, infinitives, &c., when separated from their dependent word, or accompanied by several adjuncts, generally require the insertion of commas; as, "His talents, *formed for great enterprises*, could not fail of rendering him conspicuous," "To conclude, I can only say this," &c., "Among the roots of hazel, *pendent o'er the plaintive stream*, they frame," &c.

THE SEMICOLON.

646. When a sentence consists of several members, and these members are complex and subdivided by commas, the larger divisions of the sentence are sometimes separated by the semicolon; thus, "As the desire of approbation, when it works according to reason, improves the amiable part of our species in every thing that is laudable; so nothing is more destructive to them, when it is governed by vanity and folly."

647. When several short sentences follow each other, each containing a complete sense in itself, but all having a common dependence upon some *antecedent* clause, they are generally separated from the antecedent clause by a comma, and from each other by a semicolon; as, "*Philosophers assert*, that nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible treasures in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries."

648. Several short sentences following each other, closely connected in meaning, but *without* any common grammatical dependence, are sometimes separated by a semicolon; as, "Every thing grows old; every thing passes away; every thing disappears."

649. When a sentence containing a complete sense in itself, is followed by a clause which is added by way of inference, explanation, or example, the additional clause, if introduced by a conjunction *expressed*, is separated from the main clause by a semicolon. Thus, "Apply yourself to study; *for* it will rebound to your honour;" "Prepositions govern the objective case; *as*, I write with a pen."

650. When a general term stands in apposition to several others which are particulars under it, the general term is separated from the particulars by a semicolon, and the particulars are separated from each other by commas; as, "Adjective Pronouns are subdivided into four *classes*; possessive, demonstrative, distributive, and indefinite."

THE COLON.

651. When several short sentences follow each other, each containing a complete sense in itself, but all having a common

dependence upon some *subsequent* clause, these sentences are separated from the subsequent clause by a colon, and from each other by a semicolon; as, "That Nature is unlimited in her operations; that she has inexhaustible resources in reserve; that knowledge will always be progressive; and that all future generations will continue to make discoveries: *these* are among the assertions of philosophers."

652. When a sentence containing a complete sense in itself is followed by a clause which is added by way of inference, explanation, or example, the additional clause, if appended *without any conjunction expressed*, is separated from the main clause by a colon; as, "Apply yourself to study: it will redound to your honour."

THE PERIOD.

653. Sentences which are complete in sense, and not connected either in meaning or grammatical construction, are separated by a period. Thus, "Fear God. Honour the king. Have charity towards all men."

654. *Short* sentences, when closely connected in meaning, though without any grammatical connexion, insert a semicolon instead of a period (648).

655. *Long* sentences, if complete, even though grammatically connected, often insert a period. Thus, "He who lifts himself up to the notice and observation of the world, is, of all men, the least likely to avoid censure. *For* he draws upon himself a thousand eyes, that will narrowly inspect him in every part."

656. A period must be used at the *end* of all books, chapters, sections, &c.; also, after all abbreviations; as, A. D., Art. XIV., J. Smith, &c.

THE INTERROGATION.

657. A question is reckoned as equal to a complete sentence, and the mark of interrogation as equal to a period.

658. The interrogation is always put at the end of a *direct* question; as, "Why do you neglect your duty?"

659. The *indirect* question does not require the interrogation; as, "He inquired, why you neglected your duty."

OTHER CHARACTERS USED IN WRITING.

660. The **DASH** (—) is used where the sentence breaks off abruptly, where there is an unexpected turn in the sentiment, or where a significant pause is required; as, "And God said—what?—let there be light."

661. The **EXCLAMATION** (!) is used after expressions of sudden emotion of any kind; also, in invocations or addresses; as, "Eternity! thou pleasing, dreadful thought!" When *Oh* is used, the point is placed immediately after it, or after the next word; as, "Oh! that I had been more diligent." But when *O* is used, the point is placed after some intervening words; as, "O my respected friends!"

662. The **PARENTHESIS** () includes a clause inserted in the body of a sentence, which contains some useful information or remark, but which may be omitted without injuring the grammatical construction of the sentence; as, "Know ye not, brethren, (for I speak to them that know the law,) how that the law hath dominion over a man as long as he liveth?" When the clause is short, and falls in with the general drift of the sentence, the parenthesis is now very generally omitted, and commas used in its place; as, "Mantua, Milan, and Parma, *fruitful provinces of Italy*, have often been the theatre of war."

663. **CROTCHETS** or **BRACKETS** [] are used to enclose a word or phrase which is interpolated, and which is intended to supply some deficiency, or to correct some mistake. The *parenthesis* is sometimes used for the same purpose.

664. The **APOSTROPHE** (') is used when a letter is omitted; as, *enrich'd* for *enriched*.

665. The marks of **QUOTATION** (" ") are put at the beginning and end of a passage quoted from an author in his own words.

666. The **HYPHEN** (-) is used to connect compound words; as, *lap-dog*. It is also used at the end of a line when the line ends with a broken word which is finished in the next line. The **BRACE** ({ }) is used to connect words or phrases.

667. The **CARET** (^) is used to show that some word is omitted. The **ELLIPSIS** (—) is used when some letters in a word are omitted: as, *W—n*, for *Washington*. Several asterisks

are sometimes used for the same purpose; as, J * * * S * * * for *John Smith*.

669. The DIÆRESIS (¨) separates two vowels which would otherwise be united in a diphthong; as, *aërial*.

670. The INDEX (☞) points to remarkable passages; the SECTION (§) divides into chapters or portions; the PARAGRAPH (¶) begins a new thought.

671. The vowel marks are the *acute* accent (´), the *grave* accent (`), the *circumflex* accent (^), the *long* sound (ˉ), and the *short* sound (˘). The marks of reference are the *asterisk* (*), the *obelisk* or *dagger* (†), the *double dagger* (‡), the *parallels* (||), &c. &c.

ORTHOEPY.

672. ORTHOEPY, in its most general acceptation, means *correct pronunciation*. In that sense, it may include the pronunciation of *letters*, the sounds of which have already been considered under the head of Orthography; the pronunciation of single *words*, which would connect it with the second general head of grammar, which treats of words; and the pronunciation of words in their associated capacity, that is, in *sentences*, both prose and poetical, which extends the subject to Syntax and Prosody. The word Orthoepy, however, is generally limited in its meaning to the second of these ideas, viz: the correct pronunciation of particular words. This, in a language so very irregular in this respect as the English, must be learned by the ear, and by reference to some standard pronouncing dictionary, rather than by rule. The whole subject, indeed, especially in the general acceptation of it first mentioned, belongs to the lexicographer and the elocutionist, rather than to the grammarian. Still, it seems important to explain briefly some of the *terms* used in reference to it, and to state a few of the general principles.

ACCENT.

673. ACCENT is a stress of the voice laid upon a particular syllable, distinguishing it from the rest of the word.

674. Every word of more than one syllable, has one of its syllables distinguished in this way from the rest. In addition to this, which is called the *primary* accent, if the word is long, it often has a *secondary* accent upon some other syllable; as in the words, *repatee*, *referee*, *domineer*, &c.

675. To determine the place of the primary accent is a matter

of indispensable importance to correct pronunciation. Its difficulty is as great as its importance. English words are derived mainly from two sources, the Saxon and the Latin. The idioms of the two languages, so far as the accent is concerned, are directly opposite. The tendency of the Saxon is, through all the derivatives of a word, to retain the accent on the same syllable on which it is in the *root*; as, *thought, thoughtful, thoughtfulness*, &c. In the Latin, on the contrary, the place of the accent depends upon the *termination*, and consequently changes with the different changes of the termination; as, "*different, differential, indifferent*, &c. In consequence of these opposite tendencies, and the frequent oscillations between the two, it becomes next to impossible to reduce the usages of the language to any settled rules or analogies, without making them very numerous, with still more numerous exceptions. The following rules, which are copied with slight alterations from the octavo edition of Murray's Grammar, present, perhaps, as correct a view of the analogies of the language, in this respect, as can be obtained.

Accent on Dissyllables.

676. Of dissyllables, formed by affixing a termination, the former syllable is commonly accented; as, "Childish, kingdom, áctest, ácted, tóilsome, lóver, scóffer, fáirer, fóremost, zéalous, fúlness, meékly, ártist."

677. Dissyllables, formed by prefixing a syllable to the radical word, have commonly the accent on the latter; as, "To beseém, to bestów, to retúrñ."

678. Of dissyllables, which are at once nouns and verbs, the verb has commonly the accent on the latter, and the noun, on the former syllable; as, "To cemént, a cément; to contráct, a cóntract; to preságe, a présage."

679. This rule has many exceptions. Though verbs seldom have their accent on the former, yet nouns often have it on the latter syllable; as, "Delight, perfúme." Those nouns which, in the common order of language, must have preceded the verbs, often transmit their accent to the verbs they form, and inversely. Thus, the noun "wáter," must have preceded the verb "to

wáter," as the verb "to correspónd," must have preceded the noun "correspóndent:" and "to pursúe" claims priority to "pursúit." So that we may conclude, wherever verbs deviate from the rule, it is seldom by chance, and generally in those words only where a superior law of accent takes place.

680. All dissyllables ending in *y*, *our*, *ow*, *le*, *ish*, *ic*, *ter*, *age*, *en*, *et*; as, "Cránný, lábour, wállow, willow (except allów, avów, endów, belów, bestów); báttle, bánish, cámblic, báttler, cóurage, fásten, quáet;" accent the former syllable.

681. Dissyllable nouns in *er*; as, "Cánker, búttler," have the accent on the former syllable.

682. Dissyllable verbs, terminating in a consonant and *e* final; as, "Compríse, escápe;" or having a diphthong in the last syllable; as, "Appéase, revéal;" or ending in two consonants; as, "Atténd;" have the accent on the latter syllable.

683. Dissyllable nouns, having a diphthong in the latter syllable, have commonly their accent on the latter syllable; as, "Appláuse;" except some words in *ain*; as "Villain, cúrtain, móuntain."

684. Dissyllables that have two vowels, which are separated in the pronunciation, have always the accent on the first syllable, as, "Líon, ríot, quáet, líar, rúin;" except "créáte."

Accent on Trisyllables.

685. Trisyllables formed by adding a termination, or prefixing a syllable, retain the accent of the radical word; as, "Lóveliness, ténderness, contémner, wágoner, phy'sical, bespáttler, coménting, comménding, assúrance."

686. Trisyllables ending in *ous*, *al*, *ion*; as, "árduous, cápital, méntion," accent the first.

687. Trisyllables ending in *ce*, *ent*, and *ate*, accent the first syllable; as, "Coúntenance, cóntinence, ármament, ímminent, élegant, própagate;" unless they are derived from words having the accent on the last; as, "Connivance, acquáintance;" and unless the middle syllable has a vowel before two consonants; as, "Promúlgate."

688. Trisyllables ending in *y*; as, "éntity, spécify, liberty, víctory. súbsidy," commonly accent the first syllable.

689. Trisyllables ending in *re* or *le*, accent the first syllable; as, "Légible, théâtre;" except "Disciple," and some words which have a preposition; as, "Exámple, indénture."

690. Trisyllables ending in *ude*, commonly accent the first syllable; as, "Plénitude, hábitude, réctitude."

691. Trisyllables ending in *ator*, have the accent on the middle syllables; as, "Spectátor, créátor," &c.; except "órator, sénator, bárrator, légátor."

692. Trisyllables which have in the middle syllable a diphthong; as, "Endéavour;" or a vowel before two consonants; as, "Doméstic;" accent the middle syllable.

693. Trisyllables that have their accent on the last syllable are commonly French; as, "Acquiésce, repartée, magazine;" or they are words formed by prefixing one or two syllables to a long syllable; as, "Immatûre, overchárge."

Accent on Polysyllables.

694. Polysyllables, or words of more than three syllables, generally follow the accent of the words from which they are derived; as, "árrogating, cóntinency, incóntinently, comméndable, commúnicableness."

695. Words ending in *ator* have the accent generally on the penultimate, or last syllable but one: as, "Emendátor, gladiátor, equivocátor, prevaricátor."

696. Words ending in *le* commonly have the accent on the first syllable; as, "ámicable, déspicable;" unless the second syllable has a vowel before two consonants; as, "combústible, condémnable."

697. Words ending in *ion*, *ous*, and *ty*, have their accent on the antepenultimate, or last syllable but two; as, "Salvátion, victórious, activítty."

698. Words which end in *ia*, *io*, and *cal*, have the accent on the antepenult; as, "Cyclopaédia, punctílio, despótical."

699. The rules respecting accent, are not advanced as complete or infallible, but proposed as useful. Almost every rule of every language has its exceptions; and, in English, as in other tongues, much must be learned by example and authority.

700. It may be further observed, that though the syllable on which the

principal accent is placed, is fixed and certain, yet we may, and do frequently make the secondary principal, and the principal secondary: thus "Caravan, complaisant, violin, repartee, referee, privateer, domineer," may all have the greater stress on the first, and the less on the last syllable, without any violent offence to the ear: nay, it may be asserted that the principal accent on the first syllable of these words, and none at all on the last, though certainly improper, has nothing in it grating or discordant; but placing an accent on the second syllable of these words, would entirely derange them, and produce a great harshness and dissonance. The same observations may be applied to "demonstration, lamentation, provocation, navigator, propagator, alligator," and every similar word in the language.

EMPHASIS.

701. *Emphasis* is a stress of the voice laid upon a particular word, distinguishing it from the rest of the sentence. As accent distinguishes one syllable in a word, so emphasis distinguishes one word in a sentence.

702. On the right management of the emphasis depends the life of pronunciation. If no emphasis be placed on any words, not only will discourse be rendered heavy and lifeless, but the meaning often left ambiguous. If the emphasis be placed wrong, we shall pervert and confound the meaning wholly.

703. To give a common instance: such a simple question as this, "Do you ride to town to-day?" is capable of no fewer than four different acceptations, according as the emphasis is differently placed on the words. If it be pronounced thus: "Do *you* ride to town to-day?" the answer may naturally be, "No, we send a servant in our stead." If thus: "Do you *ride* to town to-day?" answer, "No, we intend to walk." "Do you ride *to town* to-day?" "No, we ride into the country." "Do you ride to town *to-day*?" "No, but we shall to-morrow."

704. In like manner, in solemn discourse, the whole force and beauty of an expression often depend on the emphatic word; and we may present to the hearers quite different views of the sentiment, by placing the emphasis differently. In the following words of our Saviour, observe in what different lights the thought is placed, according as the words are pronounced. "Judas, betrayest thou the Son of man with a kiss?" "*Be* trayest thou," makes the reproach turn on the infamy of treachery. "Be-*trayest thou*," makes it rest upon Judas's connexion with his master. "Be-*trayest thou the Son of man*," rests it upon our Saviour's personal character and eminence. "Betrayest thou the Son of man *with a kiss*?" turns it upon his prostituting the signal of peace and friendship, to the purpose of destruction.

705. The emphasis often lies on the word that asks a question; as, "*Who*

said so?" "When will he come?" "What shall I do?" "Whither shall I go?" "Why dost thou weep?" And when two words are set in contrast, or in opposition to one another, they are both emphatic; as, "He is the *tyrant*, not the *father* of his people;" "His subjects *fear* him, but they do not *love* him."

706. Some sentences are so full and comprehensive, that almost every word is emphatical: as, "Ye hills and dales, ye rivers, woods and plains;" or, as that emphatic expostulation in the prophecy of Ezekiel, "Why will ye die?" In the latter short sentence, every word is emphatical; and on whichever word we lay the emphasis, whether on the first, second, third or fourth, it strikes out a different sense, and opens a new subject of moving expostulation.

707. Emphasis often falls not only on single words, in different parts of the same sentence, but it is frequently required to be continued, with a little variation, on two, and sometimes more words together. The following sentences exemplify both the parts of this position: "If you seek to make one *rich*, study not to *increase his stores*, but to *diminish his desires*." "The Mexican figures, or picture-writing, represent *things*, not *words*: they exhibit *images to the eye*, not *ideas to the understanding*."

708. As accent dignifies the syllable on which it is laid, and makes it more distinguished by the ear than the rest; so emphasis ennobles the word to which it belongs, and presents it in a stronger light to the understanding. Were there no accents, words would be resolved into their original syllables; were there no emphasis, sentences would be resolved into their original words; and, in this case, the hearer would be under the painful necessity first, of making out the words, and afterward, their meaning.

709. Emphasis changes, in particular cases, the seat of the accent. This is demonstrable from the following examples: "He shall *increase*, but I shall *décrease*," "There is a difference between *giving* and *forgiving*," "In this species of composition, *plausibility* is much more essential than *probability*." In these examples, the emphasis requires the accent to be placed on syllables, to which it does not commonly belong.

710. In order to acquire the proper management of the emphasis, the great rule, and indeed the only rule, possible to be given, is, that the speaker or reader study to attain a just conception of the force and spirit of the sentiments which he is to pronounce. For, to lay the emphasis with exact propriety, is a constant exercise of good sense and attention. It is far from being an inconsiderable attainment. It is one of the greatest trials of a true and just taste: and must arise from feeling delicately ourselves, and from judging accurately of what is fittest to strike the feelings of others.

711 There is one error, against which it is particularly proper to cau

tion the learner ; namely, that of multiplying emphatical words too much. It is only by a prudent reserve in the use of them, that we can give them any weight. If they recur too often ; if a speaker or reader attempts to render every thing which he expresses of high importance, by a multitude of strong emphases, we soon learn to pay little regard to them. To crowd every sentence with emphatical words, is like crowding all the pages of a book with italic characters, which, as to effect, is just the same as to use no such distinctions at all.

QUANTITY.

712. The QUANTITY of a syllable is the time occupied in pronouncing it.

713. Syllables are divided in this respect into two sorts, *long* and *short*. When the length of a syllable is marked, the long and short marks are always over the *vowel*, and not over any of the consonants ; as, bôldnëss. A long syllable requires double the time of a short one in pronunciation ; as, mâte, mât ; nôte, nôt.

714. A syllable is long, when the accent is on the vowel ; as, "Fâll, bâle, môöd, hôûse, fëature."

715. A syllable is short, when the accent is on the consonant ; as, "ânt, bönnët, hüngër."

716. UNACCENTED syllables are generally short ; as, "ädmi're, bôldnëss, sinnër." But to this rule there are many exceptions ; as, "âlsô, éxile, gângre'ne, úmpire, fôretâste, &c.

717. All vowels under the principal accent, before the terminations *ia*, *io*, and *ion*, preceded by a single consonant, are pronounced long : as, "Regalia, folio, adhesion, explosion, confusion : " except the vowel *i*, which in that situation is short : as, "Militia, punctilio, decision, contrition." The only exceptions to this rule seem to be, "Discretion, battalion, national, and rational."

718. All the vowels that immediately precede the terminations, *ity* and *ety*, are pronounced long : as, "Deity, piety, spontaneity." But if one consonant precedes these two terminations, every preceding accented vowel is short ; except *u*, and the *a* in "security, and rarity : " as, "Polarity, severity, divinity, curiosity ;—impunity." Even *u* before two consonants contracts itself : as, "Curvity, taciturnity," &c.

719. Vowels under the principal accent, before the terminations *ic* and *ical*, preceded by a single consonant, are pronounced short ; thus, "Satanic, pathetic, elliptic, harmonic, fanatical, poetical, levitical, canonical ; " except, "Tunic, runic, cubic, musical, cubical," &c.

720 The vowels in the antepenultimate syllable of words, with the following terminations, is always pronounced short.

loquy: as, obloquy.

strophe: as, apostrophe.

meter: as, barometer.

gonal: as, diagonal.

vorous: as, carnivorous.

ferous: as, somniferous.

fluous: as, superfluous.

fluent: as, mellifluent.

parous: as, oviparous.

cracy: as, aristocracy.

gony: as, cosmogony.

phony: as, symphony.

nomy: as, astronomy.

tomy: as, anatomy.

pathy: as, antipathy.

PAUSES.

721. PAUSES are of three kinds: first, *emphatical* pauses; secondly, such as mark the *distinctions of the sense*; and lastly, *poetical* pauses.

722. An *emphatical* pause is made, after something has been said of peculiar moment, and on which we desire to fix the hearer's attention. Sometimes, before such a thing is said, we usher it in with a pause of this nature. Such pauses have the same effect as a strong emphasis, and are subject to the same rules, especially to the caution just now given, of not repeating them too frequently. For as they excite uncommon attention, and of course raise expectation, if the importance of the matter is not fully answerable to such expectation, they occasion disappointment and disgust.

723. But the most frequent and the principal use of pauses, is, to *mark the divisions of the sense*, and at the same to allow the speaker to draw his breath; and the proper and delicate adjustment of such pauses, is one of the most nice and difficult articles of delivery. In all reading, and public speaking, the management of the breath requires a good deal of care, so as not to oblige us to divide words from one another, which have so intimate a connexion, that they ought to be pronounced with the same breath, and without the least separation. Many sentences are miserably mangled, and the force of the emphasis totally lost, by the divisions being made in the wrong place. To avoid this, every one, while he is speaking, or reading, should be very careful to provide a full supply of breath for what he is to utter. It is a great mistake to imagine, that the breath must be drawn only at the end of a period, when the voice is allowed to fall. It may easily be gathered at the intervals of the period, when the voice is only suspended for a moment; and, by this management, one may always have a sufficient stock for carrying on the longest sentence, without improper interruptions.

724 Pauses in reading and public discourse must be formed upon the manner in which we utter ourselves in ordinary sensible conversation

and not upon the stiff artificial manner which we acquire, from reading books according to the common punctuation. It will by no means be sufficient to attend to the points used in printing; for these are far from marking *all* the pauses which ought to be made in speaking. A mechanical attention to these resting-places, has perhaps been one cause of monotony, by leading the reader to a similar tone at every stop, and a uniform cadence at every period. The primary use of points is, to assist the reader in discerning the grammatical construction; and it is only as a secondary object, that they regulate his pronunciation.

725. To render pauses pleasing and expressive, they must not only be made in the right place, but also accompanied with a proper tone of voice, by which the nature of these pauses is intimated: much more than by the length of them, which can seldom be exactly measured. Sometimes it is only a slight and simple suspension of voice that is proper; sometimes a degree of cadence in the voice is required; and sometimes that peculiar tone and cadence which denote the sentence to be finished. In all these cases, we are to regulate ourselves, by attending to the manner in which nature teaches us to speak, when engaged in real and earnest discourse with others.

726. It is a general rule, that the suspending pause should be used when the sense is incomplete; and the closing pause when it is finished. But there are phrases, in which, though the sense is not completed, the voice takes the closing, rather than the suspending pause; and others, in which the sentence finishes by the pause of suspension.

727. The closing pause must not be confounded with that fall of the voice, or *cadence*, with which many readers uniformly finish a sentence. Nothing is more destructive of propriety and energy than this habit. The tones and inflections of the voice at the close of a sentence, ought to be diversified, according to the general nature of the discourse, and the particular construction and meaning of the sentence. In plain narrative, and especially in argumentation, a small attention to the manner in which we relate a fact, or maintain an argument in conversation, will show, that it is frequently more proper to raise the voice, than to let it fall, at the end of a sentence. Some sentences are so constructed, that the last words require a stronger emphasis than any of the preceding; while others admit of being closed with a soft and gentle sound. Where there is nothing in the sense which requires the last sound to be elevated or emphatical, an easy fall, sufficient to show that the sense is finished, will be proper. And in pathetic pieces, especially those of the plaintive, tender, or solemn kind, the tone of the passion will often require a still greater cadence of the voice. The best method of correcting a uniform cadence, is frequently to read *select sentences*, in which the style is pointed, and in which *antitheses* are frequently introduced; and argumentative pieces, or such as abound with interrogatives, or earnest exclamation.

728. *Poetical pauses* are of two kinds; the *final* pause at the end of each line, and the *cæsural* pause near the middle of the line.

729. In reading blank verse, where there is no help from rhyme, the close of each line should be made sensible to the ear, but without any elevation or depression of the voice. The termination of the line should be marked only by such a slight suspension of sound as may distinguish the passage from one line to another without injuring the sense.

730. In reading a line of eight, ten, or twelve syllables, a decided pause is found necessary somewhere near the middle of the line. This is called the *cæsural* pause, and is generally at the end of the fourth, fifth, or sixth syllable.

TONE.

731. **TONE** is that quality of the voice by which it is expressive of *emotion*. The tones are consequently as various as are the emotions of the mind.

732. The best, and in fact the only general rule for the tone, is to attend carefully to the meaning of the author, and endeavour to feel the proper emotion. If the emotion is felt, the tone will follow as naturally as the change in the features. No man utters fear, hope, joy, sorrow, anger, admiration &c., in the same tone of voice. In passing, however, from one tone to another, the voice is *inflected*, so to speak, up and down. These *inflections* are capable of being reduced to certain practical rules, which may be found in any good work on elocution. One general remark, however, may be made here in regard to them, which is this: The *violent* emotions are, for the most part, expressed by a rising inflection of the voice, and the *gentle* emotions by a falling inflection.

FIGURES.

733. A *figure* in language is some deviation from the usual mode of speech. This deviation may be in the *form* of a word, and then it relates to Orthography and Etymology; it may be in its *construction* with the other words of a sentence, and then it relates to Syntax; it may be in the *meaning* of a word, and then it relates to Rhetoric; and as figures of all kinds are more common in poetry than elsewhere, the whole subject cannot be considered as unconnected with Prosody. The reason for discussing the subject in this part of the book, has already been assigned (617). I need only add here, that in whatever part of grammar it is considered, it is desirable that the whole subject should be presented at once, and not in detached portions.

FIGURES OF ORTHOGRAPHY AND ETYMOLOGY.

734. A figure of Orthography or Etymology is some deviation

from the usual form of a word. The figures of this kind are eight; *Aphæresis*, *Syncope*, *Apocope*, *Prosthesis*, *Paragoge*, *Synæresis*, *Diæresis*, and *Tmesis*.

735. *Aphæresis* takes away a letter or syllable from the beginning of a word; as, '*gan*, for *began*.

736. *Syncope* rejects a letter or syllable from the middle of a word; as, *lov'd* for *loved*; *se'nnight* for *sevensnight*.

737. *Apocope* cuts off a letter or syllable from the end; as *th'* for *the*; *morn* for *morning*; *scant* for *scanty*.

738. *Prosthesis* adds a letter or syllable to the beginning of a word; as, *enchain*, *dispart*, for *chain*, *part*.

739. *Paragoge* adds a letter or syllable to the end; as, *awaken* for *awake*.

740. *Synæresis* is the contraction of two vowels or of two syllables into one; as *ie* in *alienate*, pronounced as if written *Al-ye-nate*. Two words also are frequently contracted into one; as, '*Tis* for *it is*; '*twas* for *it was*; *we'll*, for *we will*.

741. *Diæresis* is the division of one syllable into two, by placing the mark " over the latter of two vowels; as, in *zoölogy*. It seldom occurs in English.

742. *Tmesis* separates a compound word by putting a word between; as, "*To God ward*," that is, "*Toward God*."

FIGURES OF SYNTAX.

743. A figure of Syntax is some deviation from the ordinary construction of a word. The figures of this kind are usually reckoned four; *Ellipsis*, *Pleonasm*, *Enallage*, and *Hyperbaton*.

744. *Ellipsis* is the omission of words necessary to supply the regular or full construction; as, "Reading makes a full man; conversation [makes] a ready man; and writing [makes] an exact man."

745. *Pleonasm* is the use of superfluous words; as, "I went home full of a great many serious reflections." Here the words *a great many* must be cancelled, as unnecessary. So, in the phrases "*this here*," "*that there*," the words *here* and *there* must be omitted.

746. *Enallage* is the use of one part of speech for another,

and is confined to poetry; as, "*Slow* rises merit, when by poverty depressed."

747. *Hyperbaton* is the transposition of words; as, "Come, nymph *demure*." It frequently imparts energy to a sentence, and is very common in poetry.

FIGURES OF RHETORIC.

748. A figure of Rhetoric is a deviation from the proper and literal *meaning* of a word or phrase. The figures of this kind are very numerous. It is impracticable here to give more than an enumeration of the principal ones, with a brief illustration of each.

749. The following are the principal Figures of Rhetoric: Simile, Metaphor, Allegory, Antithesis, Allusion, Hyperbole, Irony, Metonymy, Synecdoche, Personification, Apostrophe, Interrogation, Exclamation, Vision, and Climax.

750. A *Simile* is a formal comparison between two objects, expressed by the words *like* or *as*. Thus, we can say of a horse, "He is as *swift* as the *wind*;" and of a man, "He is as *firm* as a *rock*."

751. A *Metaphor* expresses a resemblance between two objects without the sign of comparison *like* or *as*; thus, "Thy word is a lamp to my feet, and a light to my path." A metaphor implies a comparison, and differs from a simile only in *form*, the *sign* of comparison being omitted. Thus, when I say, "A hero is *like* a lion," I use a simile, but when I say, "A hero *is* a lion," I employ a metaphor.

752. An *Allegory* is a continued metaphor, representing one subject by another which is analogous to it. The subject thus represented is not formally mentioned, but will be easily discovered by reflection.

753. The following from the 80th Psalm is a beautiful allegory, in which the Jewish nation is represented under the symbol of a vine. "Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt; thou hast cast out the heathen and planted it. Thou preparedst room before it; and didst cause it to take deep root, and it filled the land. The hills were covered with the shadow of it; and the boughs thereof were like the goodly cedars. It sent out its boughs into the *sea*, and its branches into the river. Why hast thou broken down its hedges

so that all they who pass by the way do pluck it? The boar out of the wood doth waste it, and the wild beast of the field doth devour it."

754. An *Antithesis* is a contrast or opposition between two objects, by which they are both made to appear in a stronger light; as, "Temperance leads to happiness, intemperance to misery."

755. An *Allusion* is a figure by which some word or phrase in a sentence recalls to our mind either some well-known fact in history, or fable in mythology, or the sentiments of some distinguished writer.

Burke, in his speech on the Carnatic war, makes the following allusion to the well-known fable of Cadmus's sowing dragon's teeth:—"Every day you are fatigued and disgusted with this cant, the Carnatic is a country that will soon recover, and become instantly as prosperous as ever. They think they are talking to innocents, who believe that by the sowing of dragon's teeth, men may come up ready grown and ready made."

756. A *Hyperbole* is a figure that represents things as greater or less, better or worse, than they are in reality; thus, David, speaking of Saul and Jonathan, says, "They were *swifter than eagles*, they were *stronger than lions*."

757. *Irony* is a figure by which we express ourselves in a manner contrary to our thoughts, not with a view to deceive, but to add force to our observations. Thus, the prophet Elijah, in challenging the priests of Baal to prove the truth of their deity, ironically says, "Cry aloud, for he is a god; either he is talking, or he is pursuing, or he is on a journey, or peradventure he sleepeth, and must be awaked."

758. A *Metonymy* is a figure by which we put the cause for the effect, or the effect for the cause, the container for the thing contained, the sign for the thing signified. Thus, 1. The cause for the effect, or the author for his works; as, "I am reading *Virgil*;" that is, his *works*.—2. The effect for the cause; as, "*Grey hairs* should be respected;" that is, *old age*. 3. The container for the thing contained; as, "The *kettle* boils," meaning the *water*.—4. The sign for the thing signified; as, "He assumes the *sceptre*;" that is, "He assumes the *sovereignty*."

759. A *Synecdoche* is a figure by which the whole is put for a part, or a part for the whole, a definite for an indefinite num-

ber, &c.; as, "*Man* returns to the dust," meaning only his *body*, "*He* earns his *bread*," meaning *all the necessaries* of life.

760. *Personification* or *Prosopopeia* is that figure by which we attribute life and action to inanimate objects; as, "*The thirsty ground*"; "*The angry ocean*;" "*The mountains saw Thee, O Lord, and they trembled.*"

761. An *Apostrophe* is a turning off from the subject of discourse, to address some other person or thing; as, "*It advances and with menacing aspect slides into the heart of the city. O my country! ah! Ilium, the habitation of the gods!*" *Personification* and *apostrophe* so nearly coincide, that they are frequently confounded. The former, however, consists in *giving life* to inanimate objects, and the latter in *abruptly addressing* objects thus animated, or persons that are dead or absent.

662. An *Interrogation* is used literally to ask a question; but figuratively, it is employed, when the passions are greatly moved, to affirm or deny more strongly. Thus, "*The Lord is not a man that he should lie, neither the son of man that he should repent. Hath he said it? and shall he not do it? Hath he spoken it? and shall he not make it good?*"

763. *Exclamation* is used to express agitated feeling, admiration, wonder, surprise, anger, joy, &c.; thus, "*O the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and knowledge of God!*"

764. *Vision* is a figure used only in animated and dignified compositions, when, instead of relating something that is past or future, we employ the present tense, and describe it as actually passing before our eyes. Thus, Cicero, in his fourth oration against Catiline, says, "*I seem to myself to behold this city, the ornament of the earth, and the capital of all nations, suddenly involved in one conflagration. I see before me the slaughtered heaps of citizens, lying unburied in the midst of their ruined country.*"

765. *Climax* is a figure in which a succession of ideas is given continually increasing in importance, until the last, which is meant to be the most important and striking of all; thus, "*There is no enjoyment of property without government; no government without a magistrate; no magistrate without obedience; and no obedience where every one acts as he pleases.*"

VERSIFICATION.

766. **VERSIFICATION** is the arrangement of words into poetical lines or verses.

VERSES.

767. A *poetical line* or *verse* consists of a certain number of accented and unaccented syllables, arranged according to fixed rules. It was originally called *verse*, from the Latin *verto*, to turn, because when we have finished one line we *turn* back to commence another.

768. A *couplet* or *distich* consists of two lines or verses taken together, whether rhyming with each other or not; a *triplet*, of three lines rhyming together.

769. A *stanza* is a combination of several lines, varying in number according to the poet's fancy, and constituting a regular division of a poem or song. The word *verse*, which strictly means only a single line, is often incorrectly used for stanza.

770. *Rhyme* is the correspondence of the last sound of one verse to the last sound of another. Verses which have this correspondence in the final sounds, are called *rhyming verses*, and the poetry so formed is sometimes called simply *rhyme*.

771. *Blank verse* is the name given to that species of poetry which is without rhyme.

FEET.

772. *Feet* are the smaller portions into which a line or verse is divided. They are called feet, because by their aid the voice steps along, as it were, through the verse in a measured pace.

773. It is necessary that the syllables which mark this regular movement of the voice, should, in some manner, be distinguished from the others. This distinction was made among the ancient Romans, by dividing their syllables into long and short, and ascertaining their quantity, by an exact proportion of time in sounding them; the long being to the short, as two to one; and the long syllables, being thus the more important, marked the movement. In English, syllables are divided into *accented* and *unaccented*, and the accented syllables being as strongly distinguished from the unaccented, by the peculiar stress of the voice upon them, are equally capable of marking the movement, and pointing out the regular paces of the voice.

as the long syllables were by their quantity, among the Romans. When the feet are formed by an accent on vowels, they are exactly of the same nature as the ancient feet, and have the same just quantity in their syllables. So that, in this respect, we have all that the ancients had, and something which they had not. We have in fact duplicates of each foot, yet with such a difference as to fit them for different purposes, to be applied at our pleasure. In the examples which follow, the accented syllables are distinguished by the mark of a *long* syllable, and the unaccented by the mark of a *short* syllable.

774. *Scanning* is dividing a verse into its feet, in order to ascertain whether the number and arrangement of the syllables are according to the laws of versification. A line, in which a syllable is wanting, is said to be *catalectic*; one which is complete, *acatalectic*; one in which there is a redundant syllable, *hypercatalectic* or *hypermeter*. In saying that a verse is redundant or the opposite, it is not meant to express the idea that the verse is *faulty*. On the contrary, these added or deficient syllables often contribute essentially to the beauty of the versification. The grammarian's province is merely to adopt some convenient name by which to recall the fact.

775. The feet used in English poetry are divided into *eight kinds*; four of two syllables, and four of three syllables.

Feet of two syllables.

1. An Iambus ∪ ¯; as, dēfēnd.
2. A Trochee ¯ ∪; as, nōblē.
3. A Spondee ¯ ¯; as, vāin măn.
4. A Pyrrhic ∪ ∪; as, ōn ă (hill).

Feet of three syllables.

5. An Anapæst ∪ ∪ ¯; as, întērcēde.
6. A Dactyl ¯ ∪ ∪; as, vîrtuōūs.
7. An Amphibrach ∪ ¯ ∪; as, cōntēntmēnt.
8. A Tribrach ∪ ∪ ∪; as, (nu)mērăblē.

Kinds of Verse.

776. The first two on each of these lists, namely, the *Iambus* *Trochee*, *Anapæst*, and *Dactyl*, are the principal feet. They are the only ones with which a piece of poetry may be wholly or in great part formed. The other four feet are chiefly used in connexion with the ones first named, for the purpose of giving variety.

777. The kind of verse to which any piece of poetry belongs, depends upon the kind of foot by which it is chiefly formed. Hence it is styled *Iambic*, *Trochaic*, *Anapæstic*, or *Dactylic verse*, according as the prevailing foot is an Iambus, a Trochee, an Anapæst or a Dactyl.

778. Each of these kinds of verse is subdivided according to the number of feet or metres in a line. A line consisting of only one foot is called a *Monometer*; of two feet, a *Dimeter*; of three feet, a *Trimeter*; of four feet, a *Tetrameter*; of five feet, a *Pentameter*; of six feet, a *Hexameter*; and of seven feet, a *Heptameter*.

IAMBIC VERSE.

779. *Iambic Monometer*. The shortest form of the English Iambic consists of an Iambus, with an additional short or unaccented syllable; as,

Dĩsdāin|ĩng,
Cõmplāin|ĩng,
Cõnsẽnt|ĩng,
Rẽpẽnt|ĩng.

We have no poem of this measure, but it may be met with in stanzas. The Iambus, with this addition, coincides with the Amphibrach.

780. *Iambic Dimeter*. The second form of our Iambic, is also too short to be continued through any great number of lines. It consists of *two* Iambuses.

Whăt plāce | ĩs hẽre ?
Whăt scẽnes | āppẽar ?
Tõ mẽ | thẽ rõse
Nõ lõng|ěr glõws.

It sometimes takes an additional short or unaccented syllable:
as,

Ūpõn | ā mōunt|āin
Bẽside | ā foũnt|āin.

781. *Iambic Trimeter*. The third form consists of *three* Iambuses

Ĭn plā|cẽs fār | őr nẽar,
Or fā|moũ őr | õbscũre,
Whẽre whõle'sõme ĩs | thẽ āir,
Or whẽre | thẽ mōst | ĩmpũre.

It sometimes admits of an additional short or unaccented syllable: as,

Oŭr hēarts | nō lōng|ēr lān|gūish.

782. *Iambic Tetrameter.* The fourth form is made up of four Iambuses.

Änd māy | ät lāst | mÿ wēa|rÿ äge

Fīnd oūt | thē pēace|fūl hēr|mītäge.

This measure is also varied by admitting an additional short or unaccented syllable at the end; as,

Ör if | it bē | thÿ will | änd plēa|sūre,

Dīrēct | my ploūgh | tō find | ä trēa|sūre.

783. *Iambic Pentameter.* The fifth species of English Iambic consists of five Iambuses.

Hōw löved, | hōw vāl|üed önce, | ävāils | thēe nōt,

Tō whōm | rēiä|tēd, ör | by whōm | bēgōt;

A hēap | öf düst | älöne | rēmäins | öf thēe;

'Tis äll | thōu ärt, | änd äll | thē prōud | shall bē.

Bē wise | tō-däy, | 'tis mäd|nēss tō | dēfēr;

Nēxt dāy | thē fä|täl prē|cēdēnt | will plēad;

Thüs ön, | till wīs|dōm is | pūsh'd öut | öf life.

This is called the *heroic* measure. In its simplest form it consists of five Iambuses, but by the admission of other feet, as Trochees, Anapæsts, &c., it is capable of many varieties. The following is made by adding a short or unaccented syllable;

Tēn thou|sänd glitt'|rīng lāmps | thē skīes | ädörn|īng.

784. *Iambic Hexameter.* The sixth form of our Iambic, is frequently called the *Alexandrine* measure. It consists of six Iambuses.

För thōu | ärt büt | öf düst; | bē hūm|blē änd | bē wise.

The Alexandrine is sometimes introduced into heroic rhyme; and when used sparingly, and with judgment, occasions an agreeable variety.

Thē sēas | shall wāste, | thē skīes | īn smōke | dēcāy,

Rōcks fäll | tō düst, | änd moūnt|aīns mēlt | äwāy;

Büt fix'd | hīs wōrd, | hīs sāv|īng pōwer | rēmäins:

*Thy rēalm | för ev|ēr lāsts, | thy öwn | Mīssi|āk rēigns.

785. Iambic Heptameter. The seventh and last form of our Iambic measure, is made up of *seven* Iambuses.

Thē Lōrd | dēscēnd|ēd frōm | ābōve, | ānd bōw'd | thē hēav|ēns
high.

This was anciently written in one line; but it is now broken into two; the first containing four feet, and the second three:

Whēn āll | thȳ mēr|cīes, Ō | mȳ Gōd !
My rīs|īng sōul | sūr|vēys,
Trāns|pōrt|ēd with | thē viēw, | I'm lōst
In wōn|dēr, lōve, | ānd prāise.

In this form it admits of an additional unaccented syllable at the end of each odd line; as,

Frōm Grēen|lānd's ī|cy moūnt|aīns
Frōm In|diā's cō|rāl strānd,
Whēre Af|rīc's sūn|ny fōunt|aīns
Rōll dōwn | thēir gōld|ēn sānd.

TROCHAIC VERSE.

786. Trochaic Monometer. The shortest Trochaic verse in our language, consists of one Trochee and a long or accented syllable.

Tūmūlt | cēase,
Sink tō | pēace.

This measure is defective in dignity, and can seldom be used on serious occasions.

787 Trochaic Dimeter. The second English form of the Trochaic consists of *two* feet; and is likewise so brief, that it is rarely used for any very serious purpose.

Ōn thē | mōuntāin,
By ā | fōuntāin.

It sometimes contains two trochees, with an additional long or accented syllable, as,

Īn thē | dāys ōf | ōld,
Fāblēs | plāinly | tōld.

788. Trochaic Trimeter. The third species consists of *three* trochees; as,

Whēn ōur | hēarts āre | mōurnīng :

or of three trochees, with an additional long or accented syllable; as,

Rēstlēss | mōrtāls | tōil fōr | nōught ;
 Bliss in | vāin frōm | ēarth is | sōught ;
 Bliss ā | nātive | ōf thē | sky,
 Nēvēr | wāndērs. | Mōrtāls, | trȳ ;
 Thēre yōū | cānnōt | sēek in | vāin ;
 Fōr tō | sēek hēr | is tō | gāin.

789. Trochaic Tetrameter. The fourth Trochaic species consists of *four* trochees; as,

Rōund ūs | rōars thē | tēmpēst | lōudēr.

This form may take an additional long or accented syllable, as follows :

Īdlē | āftēr | dīnnēr | in hīs | chāir,
 Sāt ā | fārmēr, | rūddy, | fāt, ānd | fāir.

But this measure is very uncommon.

790. Trochaic Pentameter. The fifth Trochaic species is likewise uncommon. It is composed of *five* trochees; as,

Īn thē | dārk ānd | grēen ānd | glōomy | vāllēy,
 Sātȳrs | by thē | brōoklēt | lōve tō | dāllȳ.

The same with an additional accented syllable; as,

Whēre thē | wōod is | wāving | grēen ānd | hīgh,
 Fāuns ānd | Dryāds | wātch thē | stārrȳ | sky.

791. Trochaic Hexameter. The sixth form of the English Trochaic consists of *six* trochees; as,

Ōn ā | mōuntāin, | strētch'd bē|neāth ā | hōary | willōw,
 Lāy ā | shēphērd | swāin, ānd | viēw'd thē | rōlling | billōw.

This is the longest Trochaic verse that seems to have been cultivated.

ANAPÆSTIC VERSE.

792. Anapæstic Monometer. The shortest anapæstic verse is a *single* anapæst; as,

Ĩn ā swēet
 Rēsōnānce,
 Āll thēir fēet
 Ĩn thē dānce
 Āll thē nīght
 Tīnklēd light.

This measure is, however, often ambiguous; for by laying an accent on the first, as well as the third syllable, we may generally make it a trochaic.

793. Anapæstic Dimeter. The next form of our Anapæstic verse, is made up of *two* Anapæsts; as,

On ā plāin, | ās hē strōde
 By thē hēr|mīt's ābōde.

The same with an additional short or unaccented syllable.

On thē rōad | by thē vāl|lēy,
 As hē wān|dēr'd lāmēnt|īng,
 Tō thē grēen | ōf thē fōr|žst,
 Hē rētūr'n'd | hīm rēpēnt|īng.

794. Anapæstic Trimeter. The third species consists of *three* Anapæsts,

O yē wōods, | sprēad yōur brānch|ēs āpāce;
 Tō yōur dēep|ēst rēcēss|ēs I fly;
 I wōuld hīde | with thē bēasts | ōf thē chāse;
 I wōuld vān|īsh frōm ēv|lēry ēye.

This is a very pleasing measure, and much used, both in solemn and cheerful subjects.

795. Anapæstic Tetrameter. The fourth kind of the English Anapæstic consists of *four* Anapæsts.

Māy I gōv|ērn my pās|sions with āb|sōlūte swāy;
 And grōw wī|sēr ānd bēt|tēr ās life | wēars āwāy.

This measure will admit of a short or unaccented syllable at the end; as,

On thē wārm | chēek ōf yōuth, | smīles ānd rō|sēs āre blēnd|īng

DACTYLIC VERSE.

796. *Dactylic Monometer.* The shortest dactylic verse consists of a single dactyl, as in the following :

Fēarfūlly
Tēarfūlly.

The same with an additional accented syllable :

Ōvēr ā | mēad
Prickīng hīs | stēed.

797. *Dactylic Dimeter.* This consists of two dactyls, as in the following :

Frēe frōm sā|tiēty,
Cāre, ānd ānx|iēty,
Chārms īn vā|riēty,
Fāl tō hīs | shāre.

The same with an additional accented syllable :

“Cōvēr’d with | snōw wās thē | vāle,
Sād wās thē | shriek ōf thē | gāle,
Whēn, ōn thē | nīght, wōfūl | wāil
Rōse tō thē | skies—tō thē | skies !”

798. *Dactylic Trimeter.* This consists of three dactyls, as in the following :

Wēarīng ā|wāy īn hīs | yōuthfūlnēss,
Lōvelīnēss, | beaūty ānd | trūthfūlnēss.

The same with an additional accented syllable :

“Time īt hās | pās’s’d, ānd thē | lādy īs | pāle,—
Pāle ās thē | lily thāt | lōlls ōn thē | gāle ;
Wēary ānd | wōrn, shē hās | wāitēd fōr | yēars,
Kēeping hēr | griēf ēvēr | grēen with hēr | tēars ;
Yēars will shē | tārry, fōr | cōld īs thē | clāy
Fēt’rīng thē | fōrm ōf hēr | Evērārd | Grēy.”

EVERARD GRAY.

799. The *Dactylic Tetrameter*, *Pentameter*, and *Hexameter*, with the additional or hypermeter syllable, are all found combined in the following extraordinary specimen of versification. For this,

MIXED VERSES.

801. English verses generally consist of feet all of one kind, or of one kind with an additional syllable. In this they differ materially from the verses of the ancients, in which feet of different kinds were found mixed together in the same line. For instance, the most common of all their verses, the Latin and Greek *hexameter*, corresponding in its uses to our heroic pentameter, consisted of dactyls and spondees combined to suit the varying character of the sense; a preponderance of dactyls giving a rapid movement to the verse, suited to light, gay, or beautiful subjects; and a preponderance of spondees, on the contrary, making the movement of the verse slow and solemn. In English verse, this combination of different feet in the same line, has been seldom attempted. In fact, no whole poem of any considerable size, so far as the author is aware, has been constructed of *mixed lines throughout*. Most of the examples that exist are isolated lines in poems that are otherwise purely Iambic, Trochaic, Anapæstic, or Dactylic. A Spondeo-Dactylic *poem*, for instance, does not exist in English literature, although there may be examples of Spondeo-Dactylic *verses*. A few specimens of mixed verses will now be given.

802. The following celebrated lines, from Childe Harold, contain an example of a Trochee (- ∪) and a Spondee (- -) both occurring in one line of an Iambic (∪ -) poem :

Fār | ālōng

Frōm pēak | tō pēak, | thē rāt|tlīng crāgs | āmōng,
Lēaps thē | live thūn|dēr ! nōt | frōm ōne | lōne clōud, &c.

The lines which follow, contain a Trochee (- ∪) in a verse otherwise purely Iambic (∪ -) :

Alōng | thē rō|sy ēast, | īn gōld|ēn pride.
Sōars thē | āris|īng sūn.

803. In the second of the lines which follow, which are in Iambic (∪ -) metre, occur a Pyrrhic (∪ ∪) and a Spondee (- -)

Yēt lōve|ly īn | yōur strēngth, | ās īs | thē light
Of ā | dārkh ēye | īn wōm|ān ! Fār | ālōng
 From peak to peak, &c.

The following is another example of the same :

Thāt ōn | wēak wings | frōm fār | pūrsūes | yōūr flight.

804. The following is an example of Hexameter verse, composed of dactyls (- ∪ ∪) and spondees (- -) alternately :

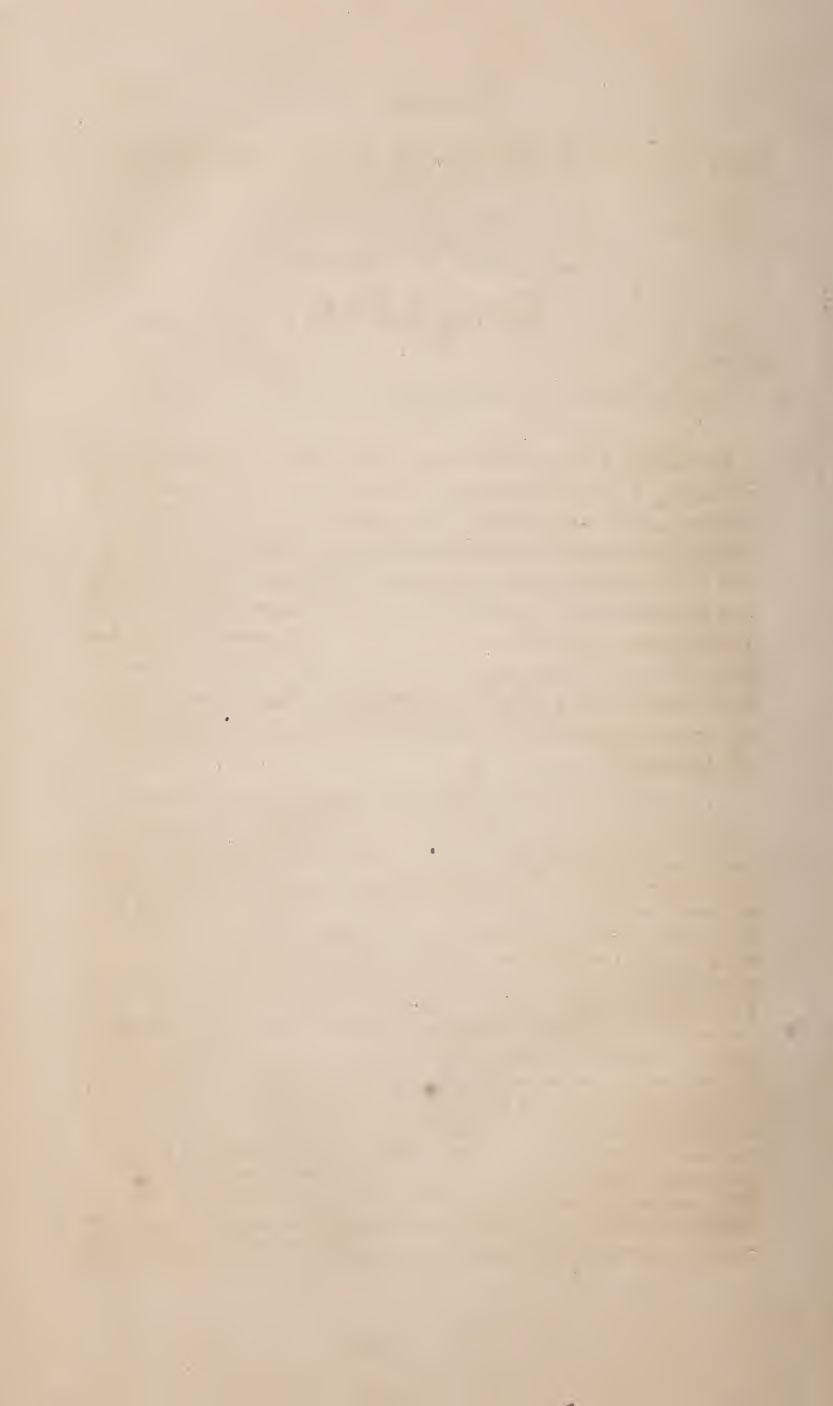
Grēen ĩn thě | wild wōod | prōudly thě | tall treē | loōke ō
thě | brōwn plāin.

The next example is a pure Dactylic Hexameter.

Ōvēr thě | vāllēy, with | spēed līke thě | wīnd, āll thě | stēeds
wēre ā | gāllōpīng.

This will remind the scholar of Virgil's oft-quoted Hexameter :

Quādrūpē|dāntē pū|trēm sōnī|tū quātīt | ūngŭlā | cāmpūm.



APPENDIX.

IN making even an elementary text-book, an Author finds it necessary, for the satisfaction of teachers and of more advanced scholars, sometimes to enter briefly upon discussions of disputed points, and to make remarks more or less extended in explanation and defence of his methods and definitions. Such remarks and discussions, if inserted in the body of the book, even though distinguished from the main text by a difference of type, are found to confuse the minds of beginners. I have judged it best, therefore, in preparing a new edition of my book, to place all matter of this kind at the end of the volume, in the form of an Appendix.

1. TRUE GROUND OF THE CLASSIFICATION OF THE LETTERS.

When the mouth, throat, and other organs of speech are opened in a particular position, and the voice is allowed to flow out in a continuous and uniform current, without any change in the position of the organs, the sound so formed is called a VOWEL. In this manner we may prolong the sound of *a* indefinitely, or until out of breath. If, while the voice is thus issuing from the mouth, the current of sound is interrupted by a partial compression of the organs, the sound becomes a SEMI-VOWEL. Thus, while prolonging the sound of *a*, if we press the tongue upon the upper part of the mouth, but allow the voice still to proceed, the sound becomes that of the letter *l*. If this compression becomes so great as actually to close the organs, the sound ceases, and in the very act of ceasing gives rise to a MUTE. Thus, in the case just mentioned, if instead of pressing the tongue upon the roof of the mouth, we press it against the teeth, and entirely stop the passage of the voice, the actual termination of the sound is that indicated by the letter *t*. This process may be reversed. The letter *t* may be formed first and the vowel follow it, as in pronouncing the syllable *ta*. In this case the mute is the very beginning of sound. According to this explanation,

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then, as stated in the text, a Mute is merely the commencement or the termination of the sound, on opening or closing the organs; a Semi-vowel is a partial interruption or modification of the sound, caused by changing the position of the organs during utterance; and a Vowel is the very sound itself prolonged without change. (Page 8.)

2. IMPROPER DIPHTHONGS.

In giving examples of the sounds of the different letters, the improper diphthongs are omitted. In every improper diphthong, one of the vowels is not sounded at all, and may therefore be disregarded. The sound of the other vowel will be found in its proper place in the list of the vowel sounds. The same remark is applicable to the triphthongs. A few examples of foreign sounds of the letters are also omitted, as of *au* in *hautboy*, &c. (Page 10.)

3. ON DOUBLING THE FINAL L.

The words, in regard to which there is a dispute respecting the doubling of the final *l*, are the derivatives of the following: *apparel*, *bevel*, *bowel*, *cancel*, *carol*, *cavil*, *channel*, *chisel*, *counsel*, *cudgel*, *dishevel*, *drivel*, *duel*, *embowel*, *enamel*, *empanel*, *equal*, *gambol*, *gravel*, *grovel*, *handsel*, *hatchel*, *imperil*, *jewel*, *kennel*, *label*, *level*, *libel*, *marshal*, *marvel*, *model*, *panel*, *parcel*, *pencil*, *peril*, *pistol*, *pommel*, *quarrel*, *ravel*, *revel*, *rival*, *rovel*, *shovel*, *shrivel*, *snivel*, *tassel*, *trammel*, *travel*, *tunnel*, *unravel*. There is the same dispute respecting the derivatives of *bias*, and *worship*. (Page 15.)

4. ORIGIN AND MEANING OF THE ARTICLES.

A or *an* was originally *ae*, *ane*, or *one*. In course of time it became abbreviated into its present form, and by a usage not uncommon in the history of language, the short form acquired a shade of meaning different from the long form, though both were originally precisely the same. The difference is this. *One* expresses the idea of unity with emphasis. *A* expresses the same idea, only without emphasis. This will be understood at once by an example. "Can *one* man carry this weight?" "No, but *two* could." "Can a *man* carry this weight?" "No, but a *horse* could." The idea of *unity* is expressed in both of these examples; but in the former it is emphatic, in the latter it is not. In the former, one is the leading idea, as distinguished from two or more; in the latter, man is the leading idea, as distinguished from horse or other animal.

A similar remark may be made in regard to *the*. The word *the* was originally *thaet* or *that*. In course of time it became abbreviated, and the short form acquired, in usage, a shade of meaning different from the original long one. *That* is demonstrative with emphasis; *the* is demonstrative without emphasis.

That these words have acquired a real difference in meaning as well as form, is evident. 1. Because *a* and *the* cannot stand without a noun, *one* and *that* can. Thus, I can say, "Give me *one*, give me *that*," but I cannot say, "Give me *a*, give me *the*." 2. Because *a* and *the* do not necessarily contradistinguish from *two* and *this*, as *one* and *that* do. 3. Because in many cases they are evidently not interchangeable. "*A* kingdom for *a* horse," and "*one* kingdom for *one* horse," express different ideas. "*The* revolution," means, in this country, "*the American*" revolution. "*That* revolution" may or may not mean so.

In considering the article as forming a separate part of speech, I have acted in obedience to the immemorial usage of all languages. The proper rank of *a* seems to be with the indefinite pronouns, and that of *the* with the demonstrative pronouns. If Grammar were a science to be written anew, very likely both the article and the adjective pronouns would be called, as in their nature they truly are, Adjectives. Even in that case, however, it is to be remarked, not so much would be gained in the way of simplification as some persons have supposed. We should require in that case a subdivision of adjectives, corresponding to the present subdivision of the adjective pronouns, for these words have differences of meaning and construction, and, in those languages which admit of changes of termination, differences also of form, that clearly distinguish them, both from ordinary adjectives, and from each other. (Page 18.)

5. PHILOSOPHICAL CHARACTER OF THE ENGLISH IN REGARD TO GENDER.

The English is, perhaps, the most philosophical of all languages in regard to gender. In other languages things without life are generally masculine, feminine, or neuter, according to their terminations, and without reference to sex or the absence of it. But in English, gender is strictly a distinction of sex, things without sex being invariably neuter. In consequence of this peculiarity, the language is capable of a rhetorical beauty, which is unknown in other languages. Personification (which means, considering inanimate objects as persons, endowed with life) is, in its ordinary form, one of the boldest figures of rhetoric, and can be used with propriety only in the highest flights of poetry and oratory. There is, however, a lower kind of personification which can be used in English, and frequently with great beauty. When, for instance, it is desirable to raise the style slightly above the tenor of prose composition, it can often be done with the greatest ease, simply by applying "*he*" and "*she*" to neuter nouns. This indirect kind of personification at once animates and enlivens the style, without rendering it passionate or overwrought. In this way we say of the earth, "*she* is fruitful," of the sun, "*he* has risen in *his* strength," of time, "*he* flies on rapid wings," &c.

When this animated kind of phraseology is used, it is impossible to

give any uniform rule for determining what nouns should be considered as masculine and what feminine. In general, however, in such cases, nouns become masculine, which indicate superior strength, energy, or firmness. Those on the contrary are feminine which indicate weakness or timidity, or which are of a passive rather than an active nature. Examples of those which are considered masculine are, sun, time, death, love, &c. Examples of feminines are, moon, earth, church, nature, &c.

In accordance with this, animals are sometimes regarded as masculine or feminine, not from their sex, but from the masculine or feminine qualities of the tribe to which they belong. Thus we say: "The lion meets *his* foe boldly." "The hare leaps from *her* covert." (Page 23.)

6. RICHES AND ALMS.

The *s* at the end of these words is not the *s* of the plural formation, but is a part of the original word. Thus, *riches* is derived from the French *richesse*, and according to its derivation should properly be singular. But usage has given it both a singular and a plural meaning, as stated in the text. *Alms*, however, from *almesse*, retains its original meaning, and is always singular. (Page 28.)

7. THE FIRST PERSON OF NOUNS.

The question whether nouns are really ever used in the first person, is not a point perhaps of much practical importance. The following sentences, however, seem to be examples of nouns in the first person:— "The Elder unto the elect lady and her children, whom *I* love," &c.—John, ii. 1. "The Elder unto the well-beloved Gaius, whom *I* love," &c.—John, iii. 1. "Paul, a servant, &c., to Titus, *mine* own son," &c. In these examples, the pronouns *I* and *mine* indicate the person of Elder and Paul, just as clearly, and by just the same kind of evidence that the pronoun *her* indicates the gender of the word lady. (Page 28.)

8. ORIGIN OF THE POSSESSIVE.

The apostrophe and *s* are an abbreviation, not of *his* as has been sometimes asserted, but of the Saxon genitive *es* or *is*. Thus, "the king's crown" was originally "the *kingis* crown." This form is sometimes explained by resolving it into "the king *his* crown," and certain Hebraisms found in the English version of the Scriptures seem to countenance such a hypothesis. But the facts are against it. Besides, "queen's" could not be resolved into "queen *hers*," "children's" into "children *theirs*," &c. (Page 30.)

9. THE TRUE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN THE NOUN AND THE ADJECTIVE.

Some grammarians have objected to making adjectives a separate part of speech, and have classed them under the head of nouns, because they often, if not always, denote some substance, quality, or property,

just as truly as nouns do. Thus, "brazen tube" means "a tube made of brass." The adjective *brazen* denotes the same substance that the noun *brass* does. In like manner, *waxen* implies the substance *wax*, *golden* implies the substance *gold*, *hard* the quality *hardness*. The objection is founded in a mistaken view of the true nature of the noun. That which distinguishes the noun from the other parts of speech, is not that it expresses an idea of some substance, and the others do not. On the contrary, every part of speech, every word in fact, necessarily expresses the idea of substance of some kind. Thus, "above" and "below" convey the idea of some circumstance, quality, or thing, just as much as the words "top" and "bottom." In the words *person*, *personal*, *personally*, *personify*; *thought*, *thoughtful*, *thoughtfully*, *thinks*, &c., we have the same substantive idea or thing running through a whole series of words, each of which is a different part of speech. The noun then is distinguished from the other parts of speech, not from its expressing some substantive idea, but from its being the NAME of that idea. If we speak or think of the name of that idea, we use a noun. If we connect that idea with any noun as one of its qualities, accidents, or attributes, but without affirmation, it is an adjective. For further illustrations of this point, see the remarks upon the verb, Appendix 15. (Page 32.)

10. THE DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

Most adjectives express qualities which are capable of existing in different degrees. Thus, a thing may not only be black, but may be blacker than some other thing, or the blackest of all things, or may be only blackish, that is, somewhat black, or may be very black, or by far the blackest of the things now under consideration, &c. As the degrees in which such a quality may exist are infinite, so there is an almost infinite number of modes, through circumlocutions and other contrivances of speech, of expressing these degrees. In other words, the degrees of comparison may be multiplied to almost any extent. Three of these, however, are so much more common than the rest, that the name is restricted to them. (Page 33.)

11. THE TRUE NATURE OF THE PRONOUN.

There is, I believe, some misapprehension in regard to the precise sense in which a pronoun stands instead of a noun. Some writers seem to entertain the opinion that a noun and its pronoun are strictly interchangeable words, and that not only is the latter a substitute for the former, but that the former may, in every case, be restored to its supposed original place in the sentence. This mistake originated probably from confining the attention to examples taken from the third person, where the noun may often, though very inelegantly, take the place of the pronoun which represents it. Thus, instead of "The man is happy because *he* is benevolent," we may say, "The man is happy, because

the man is benevolent." But, when Nathan says to David, "*Thou art the man,*" David cannot be substituted for *thou* without destroying the sense. To understand precisely in what sense a pronoun is used instead of a noun, it should be recollected that a noun has, in the first place, a meaning of its own, independently of its connection with the other words in the sentence. Thus, the word "*book,*" as soon as uttered, conveys to the mind a certain idea. In addition to this idea, thus contained in the word itself, a noun is capable of conveying to the mind at the same time, certain other ideas in consequence of its offices, as a *possessor*, as the *subject* or *object* of the verb, as indicating some *relation to the speaker*, or some *distinction of sex*, &c. Now, the pronoun discharges this latter class of duties in place of the noun, and often where the noun itself could not be used for the purpose. The pronoun is the subject of the verb, the object of the verb, indicates the speaker, the person spoken to, the person spoken of, distinguishes sex, &c., just as the noun would do in its place. At the same time, the noun cannot always, nor even often, replace the pronoun which refers to it. (Page 35.)

12. THE CLASSIFICATION OF THE PRONOUNS.

The Personal Pronouns express the idea of Person by themselves, and independently of their connection with the other words in a sentence. Thus, *I, thou, he*, convey the idea of person at once, as soon as uttered. This idea, so far as it is expressed by the relative pronouns, and by nouns, is conveyed, not by anything in the meaning of the words themselves, but by means of their connection with other words. Thus, *who*, by itself, conveys no intimation of person; but it becomes personal as soon as it is connected with an antecedent, as *he who, thou who, man who*. A part of the adjective pronouns (the Demonstrative) express indeed the idea of person by their own proper meaning, in the same manner as the personal pronoun, but they also express an additional and more important idea, which sufficiently distinguishes them from the former class. Their demonstrative character is the predominating one, and gives them their name. In like manner the Relative pronouns are distinguished from the other classes. Every pronoun, indeed, so far as it is a pronoun at all, necessarily relates to something. But this relation is not the leading and prominent idea in any except the Relative pronouns. In each class, it is the leading and prominent idea which gives name to the class, and not any property which it possesses exclusive of the rest. Thus, the leading idea in the Personal pronouns is the distinction of person; in the Relative pronouns, the relation to the antecedent; in the Adjective pronouns, the dependence of the word upon some noun in the manner of an adjective. (Page 35.)

13. GENDER OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

The fact that no separate forms for the masculine and feminine of the First and Second Persons have ever been invented, may be accounted

for perhaps by inquiring into the reason why gender itself was invented. Gender seems to be a contrivance to assist in distinguishing more clearly the person or thing that is the subject of discourse. Now in the first and second persons, this is unnecessary. The speaker, and the one spoken to, are present to the view, and by that very fact need nothing else to distinguish them. But the third person, that is, the thing spoken of, is or may be absent, and needs the distinction of gender to designate it more clearly. (Page 36.)

14. ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

The proper rank of that class of words, here called Adjective Pronouns, is a matter about which there is a good deal of difference of opinion. They have the construction of adjectives, being always connected with a noun, expressed or understood. At the same time, they are used without the noun, and instead of it, in such a way, and to so much greater an extent than ordinary adjectives, as to give them decidedly a Pronominal character. They seem in fact to hold a sort of middle position between adjectives and pronouns. Hence, they are called by some, Pronominal Adjectives; by others, Adjective Pronouns. I adhere to the latter name, because it has been admitted into the grammars of almost all languages, ancient and modern, and because I deem any change of established nomenclature a serious evil, not to be incurred unless for the most urgent reasons. In this case, no substantial error seems likely to arise from classing those words under either head. The principal point for the learner, is to know which the words are, and to have some tolerably accurate name by which to call them. (Page 43.)

15. THE TRUE NATURE OF THE VERB.

Affirmation is true of no other part of speech, and may be considered the distinguishing characteristic of the verb. The general idea, which in a verb is expressed in the form of an assertion, may be conceived of in various other forms, and so become successively different parts of speech. Thus, for instance, take the general idea of *sleeping*. If we think or speak of the *name* of this idea, it is a Noun, as, *sleep*. If the idea is connected with any subject as one of its accidents, qualities, or attributes, but without any affirmation, it is an Adjective, as, the *sleepy* boy. If the idea is affirmed or predicated of the subject of discourse, it is a verb, as, the boy *sleeps*. The idea may be introduced as a modification of some other quality or attribute, and then it is an Adverb, as, the boy acts *sleepily*. In all these instances, the same general idea exists as a common substratum, or groundwork. That which distinguishes one part of speech from another, is not that one expresses some substantive idea and another does not (which is not true); but, an idea, when conceived and spoken of as the subject of discourse, is a Noun; when conceived and spoken of as an attribute or quality of some subject, is an Adjective; when affirmed or predicated,

is a Verb. The following, from the Latin, is a good example of the same general idea being conceived of under different forms and becoming successively different parts of speech: "*Docere docilem facile est, ut docilitatis suæ edat documentum, celeri apprehensione doctrinæ, fiatque vir doctus, et sentiat docte.*" The distinction here insisted on is as old as Aristotle, and should not be lost sight of. See remarks upon the Adjective, Appendix 9. (Page 46.)

16. THE NAMES OF THE TENSES.

"To take the Tenses, as they are commonly received, and endeavor to ascertain their nature and their differences, is a much more useful exercise, as well as more proper for a work of this kind, than to raise, as might easily be raised, new theories on the subject."—*Encyclopædia Britannica*.

Much has been written both against the division of the tenses commonly received, and against the names assigned to them. The tenses which have occasioned the principal difficulty are the Perfect and the Past, or, as it is commonly called, the Imperfect. The other four correspond to tenses having the same names in most other languages. But the perfect, and the so called imperfect, labor under the difficulty of being named from two Latin tenses to which they do not accurately correspond. The Latin perfect expresses the ideas both of the perfect and the imperfect in English. Thus, *scripsi* means both "I have written," and "I wrote." Both of these ideas are *perfect*, that is, they express something *done* and *finished*; and the term *imperfect* or *unfinished*, as applied to one of them, is strikingly incorrect. Thus, "I wrote my letter yesterday," "God created the world," "Moses wrote the Pentateuch;" all these evidently express actions *finished*, or *perfect*. The Latin imperfect, on the contrary, expresses an idea strictly corresponding to its name. But, although this idea is not found in the regular form of the English tense "I wrote," it is expressed exactly by what is called the Progressive Form of that tense, viz., "I was writing." On this account some still retain the name as describing accurately one of the forms of the tense, though not the leading or principal form. The objection to such a course is that the term Imperfect describes equally well the progressive form of every tense. Thus, *I am writing, I have been writing, I shall be writing, &c.*, all express action incomplete or imperfect.

By laying aside the term Imperfect, the principal objection to the term Perfect is obviated. The term is not indeed the most accurate that could be desired, but it is no longer rendered incomprehensible by being incongruously contrasted with the Imperfect. We no longer have two tenses, both expressing action equally finished and complete, and yet one called the Perfect, and the other the Imperfect.

While, therefore, the term Perfect is retained for the reason assigned, and in conformity with the immemorial usage of all languages, it is

deemed necessary to ascertain and limit its meaning with as much precision as may be. (Page 48.)

17. THE TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE AND POTENTIAL MOODS.

The Tenses in the Subjunctive and Potential moods are used with less precision than in the Indicative. This arises in part from the meaning of some of the auxiliaries and conjunctions, which modify the time expressed in the affirmation; and in part from mere usage, of which no other account can be given, than that the particular form does in fact convey a certain idea of time. Still, in a majority of cases, the tenses of the Subjunctive and Potential moods express the same distinctions of time as the tenses of the same name in the Indicative. It has not been thought expedient, therefore, to change the names of the tenses, or to invent new names, to suit every change of meaning produced by custom or by particular combination of words, but to name the tense in every case by *its form*. Thus, in the sentence, "If I had the money, I would pay you," *had* undoubtedly expresses present time, not past; still, it has the *form* of the past, and should be called accordingly. (Page 51.)

18. THE ENGLISH PARTICIPLE.

Many mistakes have arisen from supposing the English participles to correspond, more nearly than they in truth do, to the Latin participles. In Latin, excepting in deponent verbs, the present participle is always active, the perfect always passive. Hence, some grammarians assume the same to be always true in English. They take for granted that the participle in *ing* is essentially and necessarily active, and that the perfect is essentially and necessarily passive. Neither of these is true. The Perfect participle is extensively used in making the compound forms of the active voice. When we analyze one of these compound expressions, as for instance, *he had concealed*, we call *had* the auxiliary, and *concealed* the Perfect participle. The force of the participle in this combination is different from what it is when found in the passive voice, or when standing alone. Thus, in the sentence, "He had a dagger concealed under his cloak," *concealed* is passive, signifying *being* concealed; but in the former combination, it goes to make up a form the force of which is active. This is obvious the moment we attempt to translate the two expressions into any language where the difference is distinguished by a difference of termination. Thus, in Latin, "He had concealed the dagger," would be "*pugionem abdiderat*;" but, "He had the dagger concealed," would be "*pugionem abditum habebat*." It should be remarked, however, that this participle in the active is only found in combination. Whenever it stands alone, to be parsed as a participle, it is passive.

A usage similar in some respect prevails in regard to the Present participle in *ing*. When it stands by itself, as a participle, it is inva-

riably active. But in combination, in making what is called the Progressive Form of the verb, it is not invariably active: as, in the phrase, "The house is building." I know the correctness of this mode of expression has lately been very much assailed, and an attempt, to some extent successful, has been made to introduce the form "is being built." But, in the first place, the old mode of expression is a well established usage of the language, being found in our best and most correct writers. Secondly, "is being built," does not convey the idea intended, namely, that of progressive action. "Is being," taken together, means simply "is," just as "is writing" means "writes;" therefore, "is being built," means "is built," a perfect and not a progressive action. Or, if "being built" be taken together, they signify an action complete, and the phrase means, as before, "the house is (exists) being built." Thirdly, the same reasoning which has led to the expression "is being built," would lead equally to such cumbersome forms as "was being built," "has been being built," "had been being built," "shall be being built," "shall have been being built," "might have been being built," &c. Fourthly, the same mode of proceeding, which requires us in this case to deny any force to usage, and to consider the termination *ing* always active, because it is generally so, would lead, if carried out, to still wider consequences. For instance, when we say, "The house is building," the advocates of the new theory ask, "building what?" We might ask in turn, when you say, "Wheat sells well," sells what? If usage allows us to say "Wheat sells at a dollar," in a sense that is not active, why may it not also allow us to say, "Wheat is selling at a dollar," in a sense that is not active? (Page 52.)

19. REASONS FOR ADOPTING THE CLASSIFICATION OF TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE.

There are two classes of verbs perfectly distinct from each other, viz.: Those which do, and those which do not govern an objective case. The terms *active* and *neuter*, formerly used to express this distinction, are now generally abandoned. A strong objection to them was, that many verbs govern an objective case in which it is at least doubtful whether any action, in the ordinary sense of that term, takes place; while, on the contrary, a large proportion of the verbs called *neuter*, and which, by the definition, ought to express no action, do yet in fact express action in the highest degree, as, to *run*, to *walk*, to *swim*, &c. Another and still stronger objection was that the terms *active* and *neuter* as applied to verbs, produced confusion and doubt about the distinctions of *active* and *passive*, as applied to *Voice*. It needs no argument to prove that *I am struck* is just as really a modification of *to strike*, as *I have struck* is; and yet, under the old classification of *active*, *passive*, and *neuter*, the pupil was taught to consider these forms as two verbs belonging to different classes. *I have struck*, for instance, was called an *active verb*; *I am struck*, a *passive verb*; and *I walk*, a

neuter verb. Under the present arrangement, the terms Active and Passive do not express a distinction of verbs, but of Voice. The active voice of a verb is distinguished from its passive voice, just as one of its moods or tenses is distinguished from any other mood or tense. There would seem to be no more reason for dividing verbs into active and passive verbs, than for dividing them into present verbs, past verbs, indicative verbs, potential verbs, &c.

It is indeed true that verbs may be divided into those which express action, and those which do not express action. But, if the line be drawn with accuracy, the number of the latter will be exceedingly small, including the verbs *to be*, *to exist*, and perhaps some few others; and, besides, the distinction, when conceded, will be of no available use for any of the practical purposes of grammar. Some verbs will be found governing an objective case, in which it is difficult to perceive any decided action, while others expressing intense activity will be found without an objective case.

The terms Transitive and Intransitive have been used, because in very many, perhaps a majority, of the verbs which take an objective case, some action may be conceived as passing from the agent to the object; as, *James strikes the table*. Here, the act of *striking* passes from the agent, James, to the object, which is the table. There are many cases, however, in which such a transition cannot readily be traced; as, *he enjoys repose*. Still, the terms seem the least objectionable that have yet been proposed, especially if limited by their definition to the classification really meant, viz.: to VERBS WHICH DO, AND THOSE WHICH DO NOT GOVERN AN OBJECTIVE CASE. In this sense, the distinction is one easily made, universally recognised, and of great practical importance, although the terms employed to express it are not as entirely accurate as could be desired. (Page 53.)

20. NATURE OF THE AUXILIARIES.

It would be a mistake to suppose, as is sometimes done, that the Auxiliaries are mere inventions, introduced into the language for the purpose of making out the necessary forms. There is abundant evidence that the auxiliaries were originally independent verbs, and that the verbs following the auxiliaries were in the infinitive mood, *to* being omitted. "*To*," indeed, as a sign of the Infinitive, was introduced into the language only in the later stages of its history. Originally, "*to*" was never found in connection with the infinitive. Even now it is not so found after some verbs; as, "*I bade him follow.*" Here, "*follow*" is recognised as being in the infinitive, just as much as "*to follow*" is in the sentence, "*I told him to follow.*" So also "*I saw him (to) follow,*" "*They need not (to) follow,*" &c. The auxiliary "*shall*," meant, originally, "*to be obliged.*" "*I shall (to) write,*" meant, "*I am obliged to write.*" So long as "*shall*" retained its original meaning and force, it was quite proper to parse "*write*" as

being in the infinitive mood, as we do the verb "follow" in the previous examples. In like manner, all the compound tenses may be analyzed. This analysis, and the study of the proper force of the auxiliaries by themselves, is important as affording the best clue to the true meaning and use of the various moods and tenses.

It would be an equal mistake on the other hand, because these compound forms may be analyzed and traced to original independent elements in the language, to deny their present existence as compounds, and to assert, as some recent grammarians have done, that there are in English but two tenses, the present and the past. As in Chemistry, an alkali and an acid, when combined, form a compound with properties not found in either of the ingredients, so in language, particular combinations of words acquire by usage new meanings not possessed by the words taken singly. The phrase "I shall be," meant, originally, "I am obliged to be," and the connection between these two ideas may be very ingeniously and truly traced. But the phrase now expresses simply and absolutely the idea of *futurity*, without any sort of *obligation*. The man who says "*I shall be* in New York to-morrow," conveys by the words *shall be* precisely what he would by the Latin *ero*. The former is just as much the future tense of the verb *to be* as the latter is of the verb *esse*. To parse *shall* as a verb in the present tense, and *be* in the infinitive, would be just as erroneous as to deny person to the Hebrew verb, because the forms of the persons may be analyzed, and the personal pronouns clearly detected in the terminations, and separated, if needs be, from the rest of the verb.

The same reasoning will apply to the proposed analysis of the other compound forms, *do love, did love, have loved, have been, &c.* The object aimed at is simplification. The writers in question seem, at first sight, to accomplish their end, for they apparently despatch the whole verb, moods, tenses, and all, in a single sweeping paragraph. But in the end, the learner finds he has quite as much to learn in detached and unconnected parcels, as he had before under a systematic and orderly arrangement. He has gained the simplicity of the monosyllabic Chinese in exchange for the complex forms and combinations of the Arabic or the Greek! (Page 60.)

21. THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

It will be noticed that what is called in the text the Regular form of the Subjunctive, is merely the Indicative with some conjunction prefixed expressing doubt or contingency. This form extends through all the six tenses. The propriety of considering this form as a distinct mood has been very much questioned. Writers on English grammar are divided on the subject, and it may be fairly considered an open question. Both forms, therefore, are presented, for the convenience of those teachers who prefer to teach both. At the same time the forms

are so separated that those who choose, can omit the Regular form, and require the pupil merely to commit the other.

The Subjunctive form of this mood is limited in the active to the Present tense, and in the passive to the Present and Past tenses. It is found also of course in the Present and Past tenses of the verb *to be*. Some few writers have contended for the use of this form in the Perfect. But the great weight of authority is against it. (Page 62.)

22. THE NATURE OF THE CONJUNCTIONS.

It is a mistake to suppose that the conjunctions and prepositions serve merely to connect the other parts of a sentence without any significance of their own. These words were all no doubt originally other parts of speech, viz. : verbs, nouns, and adjectives. Most of them may be distinctly traced, and the meaning of the original recognised in the modern abbreviations. Thus, *if* is the imperative of the Saxon *gifan*, to give. "*If* it is fair to-morrow, I will go out," means "*give* (grant) it to be fair to-morrow," &c. Still, as the original words from which the conjunctions and prepositions are derived are mostly obsolete, these words are to be now regarded in reference to their present use, and not to their original character. Thus, to require a child to parse *if* as the imperative of the verb *gifan*, to give, and *unless* as the imperative of the verb *onlesan*, to dismiss, would only serve to perplex and embarrass. Where, however, the words are still in current use in the language, the case is different, and it becomes extremely doubtful whether they ought to be considered as prepositions and conjunctions, or whether they ought not to be classed among other parts of speech according to their obvious meaning. Examples of this sort are, *except*, *excepting*, *regarding*, *touching*, *respecting*, *provided*, *notwithstanding*, &c. (Page 77.)

23. THE DERIVATION OF WORDS.

This part of Etymology has assumed so much importance as to become a separate branch of study, and several excellent works on the subject have been prepared. In like manner, the Spelling Book and the Dictionary may be considered as having grown out of a particular branch of Orthography. In consequence of the existence of separate works on these points, they are passed over in Grammar more cursorily than they would otherwise be. Still it is not deemed expedient to pass them over altogether. As a few of the most important rules for Spelling were given, so a very brief summary will be presented of some of the most essential principles of Derivation. (Page 84.)

24. ORDER OF THE RULES IN SYNTAX.

In the old grammars, Syntax was divided in Concord and Government. By Concord was meant the agreement of one word with another in gender, number, case, or person. By Government was meant the

power which our word had of determining the mood, tense, or case of another. The rules of Syntax were then classified and arranged according to this division. To adhere to such a division, however, occasions many serious inconveniences. Subjects intimately connected in every other respect, are often widely sundered because of their difference in this one unimportant particular. By the same arbitrary arrangement, rules of essential importance, which the pupil must know before he can make any progress in parsing, are thrown far forward in the book, quite beyond his reach, except by wading through a mass of rules which he is not yet qualified to comprehend.

The best of the more recent grammarians, therefore, very wisely cease to insist upon this distribution, and practically adopt that which arises naturally from the analysis of a simple sentence. The principal parts of a sentence are the subject, the attribute, and the object, in other words the nominative, the verb, and the objective. The agreement of the verb with its nominative, and the government of the objective case, therefore, demand the immediate attention of the pupil, at the very threshold of syntax. As soon as he has learned to resolve simple sentences, he is prepared for those which are more complex. This complexity arises either from the combination of several simple sentences into one, or from connecting various adjuncts with the principal parts of a sentence. Thus, the adjective is connected with the noun, the adverb with the verb or adjective, pronouns with their antecedents, &c. In this manner, the various leading rules arise nearly in the order in which they are wanted by the pupil, while under each leading rule are given all the exceptions and subsidiary rules naturally connected with the subject. This arrangement may not be as strictly logical as the former, but its practical advantages are such that it bids fair to be generally adopted.

In illustration of these remarks let us suppose a case. The simplest form of a sentence is that presented in the words "John writes." The formula here given is the crystallizing centre around which all the parts of a sentence, no matter how complicated, necessarily cluster. It is, therefore, the starting point in every attempt at grammatical analysis. In accordance with this view of the subject, the rules which apply to such a sentence are made to form the *first two rules* of syntax. "John writes *letters*," furnishes another step in the analysis, and leads to the *third* rule, relating to the government of the objective case. "John writes letters *in haste*," introduces rule *fourth*, relative to prepositions. In like manner, without repeating the whole sentence, introducing the clause "by his *father's* permission," creates a necessity for rule *fifth*, providing for the government of the possessive. "To his brother *Thomas*," presents a case of apposition, rule *sixth*. The sentence may be conceived not unnaturally as running on thus: "In *which* (Pronoun, Rule 7th), after *a* (Article, Rule 8th), *long* (Adjective, Rule 9th) story about *those* (Adjective Pronoun, Rule 10th) sports, *happening* (Participle, Rule 11th) *suddenly* (Adverb, Rule 12th) *to remember* (Infinitive,

Rule 13th), he stops short, *and* (Conjunction, Rule 14th) exclaims, *oh!* (Interjection) did you ever hear," &c. In this way, step by step, the sentence increases in complexity, every new clause giving rise to a new rule in the order in which it seems naturally to be wanted.

The fourteen rules, thus rapidly referred to, are those which the learner needs at every step in parsing, which he must have at his tongue's end and quote on all occasions. They are short and simple, none of them requiring a greater effort either of the memory or the understanding than the rule that "a verb agrees with its nominative case in number and person." At the same time they are comprehensive, covering fairly the whole ground of syntax. All the subordinate and subsidiary rules and exceptions are arranged under these fourteen primary rules, in such order as seems best suited to combine convenience of reference with accuracy and fulness of detail. (Page 89.)

25. THE CASE ABSOLUTE.

The case absolute, in almost all languages except the English, is some other than the nominative. Thus, in the Saxon it is the dative, in the Latin it is the ablative, in the Greek, and in most of the Oriental languages, it is the genitive. (Page 90.)

26. THE SUBJECT OF THE INFINITIVE MOOD.

The Infinitive mood in English has no subject. In this respect it differs from the classical and many other languages, in which the infinitive very commonly has a subject like the other moods, but is distinguished by this peculiarity, that the subject is not in the nominative, but in the accusative or objective. (Page 93.)

27. CAUSATIVE VERBS.

In most languages, there is a class of verbs derived from others, and called *causatives*. If the original verb expresses any particular action, the causative denotes the causing of that action. This practice is not wholly unknown to the English. Thus, "to lay," signifies "to cause to lie;" "to raise," signifies "to cause to rise," &c. Sometimes, also, an intransitive verb, without undergoing any change of form, assumes a causative meaning and becomes transitive; as, "to walk a horse," meaning "to cause him to walk." The construction last mentioned is sometimes adopted where good usage hardly warrants it; as, "to grow cotton," meaning "to cause it to grow." It would be better to avoid an expression which is, at least, of doubtful authority, and to use some other word, such as to raise, &c. (Page 100.)

28. THE DIRECT AND THE INDIRECT OBJECT.

Grammarians have sometimes distinguished between the "direct" object and the "indirect." Thus, "Give a book to me." The direct

object of the verb is "book," the indirect object is "me." This indirect object in most languages forms a distinct case, and is governed by the verb equally with the direct object. In English, it is always governed by a preposition. There is, in a few instances, an ellipsis of the preposition, which has led some erroneously to suppose that both cases are governed by the verb; as, "Give (to) me a book," "Teach (to) me grammar," &c.

In the passive voice, the direct object becomes the nominative, but the indirect remains in the same construction, governed by the preposition; as, "The book is given to me." There seems to have been a tendency in the language to allow, in the passive, the indirect object to become the nominative, and let the direct object remain, governed by the verb; as, active, "To teach grammar to me," passive, "I am taught grammar." Other instances are found in the expressions, "I was asked a question," "I was denied the privilege," "I have been offered a situation," &c. This usage is against the genius of the language, and should not be encouraged.

In parsing sentences which contain the objective construed with a verb in the passive voice, some grammarians consider the objective as governed by the passive, others as governed by some preposition understood. Thus, "He is taught (in) grammar," that is, instructed in grammar. (Page 103.)

29. THE USE OF WORTH AS AN ADJECTIVE.

The last example cited in the text is somewhat disputed and not very clear. "Worth" appears to be an adjective, because it evidently qualifies the noun, and may itself be qualified by an adverb; as, "He had a wife *well* worth the confidence which he placed in her." Here, "well" qualifies worth, and "worth" qualifies wife, just as clearly as if it were "worthy." The construction, too, seems precisely analogous to the following: "This deed is no more worthy (of) heaven, than thou art worthy (of) her." As in the latter case there is an evident ellipsis of the preposition, the most natural solution of the former seems to be to say, that "of" is omitted, and that "worth," by an anomalous usage, is employed in the sense of "worthy," and is an adjective.

There is another usage of "worth," entirely distinct from the foregoing. In the phrase, "Wo worth the chase," &c., it is agreed universally that "worth" is the Saxon Imperative of the verb *weorthan*, meaning simply *be to*, or *betide*, "Wo *be* (to) the chase," "Wo *betide* the chase," &c. (Page 103.)

30. USE OF THE PREPOSITIONS.

Many words derived from the Latin and Greek, are compounded with a preposition. Some writers are disposed in such cases to adopt the classical usage, and make the following preposition correspond to the

one found in the compound; as, "*averse from*," "*depend from*," &c. This is not according to the idiom of the language, which requires a preposition corresponding to the actual, present meaning of the whole word, and not to the original meaning of its constituent parts. "*Averse*" meant, originally, "*turned from*;" it now means "*opposed*," "*disinclined*," and should be followed by "*to*." "*Depend*" meant, originally, "*hang down from*;" it now means "*rely upon*," "*lean upon*," &c.

The usages of the language in regard to the prepositions are exceedingly various, and cannot be fully enumerated in an elementary work like the present. The more advanced student, who wishes to be accurate in this particular, should have by him some work of reference of standard authority, containing ample quotations from the best authors. The list in the text contains a few of the most common of these usages. (Page 104.)

31. NOUNS AND PRONOUNS USED INDEFINITELY AFTER THE INFINITIVE.

It is not easy to say in what case the noun is in such sentences. The analogy of the Latin would seem to indicate the objective. Thus, "*Not to know what happened in past years, is to be always a child*," Latin, "*semper esse puerum*." In like manner, in English we say, "*Its being me, need make no change in your determination*." (Page 113.)

32. THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE PARTICIPLE.

A participle has the construction of an adjective, inasmuch as it qualifies a noun and belongs to it. This noun is the subject of the participle (p. 90, n. 5). It holds the same relation to the participle that the nominative does to a verb. The participle, moreover, if it be transitive, may have not only a subject, but an object, which it governs in the objective case. Thus, "*James, having written his letter, sent it to the Post-office*." Here, "*having written*," like an adjective, belongs to "*James*," as its subject, and at the same time, as part of a transitive verb, retains its government of "*letter*."

A participle is often used as a noun. When so used, it is subject to most of the other constructions of nouns. It is found both in the nominative and objective cases; as, "*In writing letters, he soon became expert*," "*Writing letters is easier than writing compositions*." In the first of these examples, "*writing*" is used as a noun in the objective case, and governed by "*in*;" in the other it is also used as a noun, in the nominative case to "*is*." It is also found like a noun governing another noun in the possessive case; as, "*Much depends on John's writing his letters rapidly*." In all these instances, the participle, as a part of the verb, retains its government of the objective, and may even be qualified by an adverb. Nor is this double use of a word without analogy. The same thing occurs when the infinitive mood is used as a noun. Thus, "*To write letters is easy*." Here, "*to write*," as a noun,

is nominative to "is," and at the same time, as a verb, governs "letters." It is sometimes said, in regard to the constructions mentioned in the beginning of this paragraph, that the subject or object of the verb is not the participle, but the participle with its adjuncts. Thus, in the first example, it is not "writing," merely, that is spoken of, but "writing letters." This is true. But it is equally true, when the subject is an infinitive, or even a noun. "To see the sun is pleasant." *What* is pleasant? Not simply "to see," but "to see the sun." In like manner, if we say, "The *sight* of the sun is pleasant," it is not simply "sight" which is pleasant, but "the sight of the sun." Still, no one, in this last example, would think of parsing all these five words together as the nominative to the verb. An exercise in logic, it might be profitable enough. But as an exercise in grammar, most teachers would regard it as impracticable and useless. If, then, the noun, while the subject or the object of the verb, may have its adjuncts and dependent words, in like manner, and for equal reasons, may the infinitive and the participle, when used as nouns. (Page 128.)

33. THE SIGN OF THE INFINITIVE MOOD.

The preposition *to*, which is used in making the form called the infinitive mood, and which is generally called the sign of the infinitive mood, is not to be parsed by itself, but with the verb. There seems to be no more incongruity in thus combining a verb and a preposition, than in combining an adverb and a preposition; as, "at once," or in combining a verb and its auxiliary. Such combinations are in fact among the most common contrivances of language. (Page 134.)

34. THE CONJUNCTION *As*.

Much difference of opinion exists respecting the true nature of the word *as*, many grammarians of high authority calling it in certain circumstances a relative pronoun, equivalent to *who* or *which*. Others again (and the author reckons himself in the number) prefer to consider it in such sentences a conjunction, and explain the construction by ellipsis. Although it is difficult in all cases to supply an ellipsis which shall be perfectly satisfactory, yet the difficulty seems less than that of considering *as* a pronoun. Thus, "Shun such *as* (those are, who) are vicious," "To as many *as* (are those, who) received him." The ellipsis is often that of the indefinite *it*. Thus, "*As* (it) concerns me," "*As* (it) regards me," "*As* (it) appears," "*As* (it) follows." The usage is not entirely uniform in regard to the verb "follows." In giving a specification of particulars, almost all good writers use the phrase "as follows." Still, there are some writers of high authority, who make the verb plural when the antecedent word is so; as, "The words were *as follow*." "*As follows*," however, is far more common, the indefinite "it" being understood.

Sometimes, *as* is preceded by *such*, or some other definite antecedent,

limiting the assertion to a part of a certain class of objects, and requiring the same definite limitation in the succeeding clause. In this case, it is not proper to supply the ellipsis by the indefinite "it," but by a word corresponding to the one used in the correlative clause. Hence, if the antecedent is plural, the word to be supplied is plural, and the verb must be so too. Thus, "Such (men) *as* (those who) follow a profession," "Such of his censures only, *as* (those which) concern my friend." (Page 137.)

35. IS THAN EVER A PREPOSITION?

After *than* there is almost always an ellipsis of several words. In supplying these words, the latter clause must be made analogous to the preceding; as, "John has written more than James (*has written*)."

The only exception to this is in the use of the relative *who*, which sometimes becomes *whom*, where the corresponding clause requires the nominative; as, "Than *whom*, Satan except, none higher sat." If the personal pronoun be substituted for the relative, it would be in the nominative case; thus, "None sat higher than *he* (did)." The construction of the relative in such cases seems to be a well established usage of the language. In such a sentence I would not call the conjunction a preposition, but in parsing the relative I would say, that "*THAN is sometimes followed by WHOM, even when the corresponding clause requires the nominative.*" (Page 137.)

THE END.



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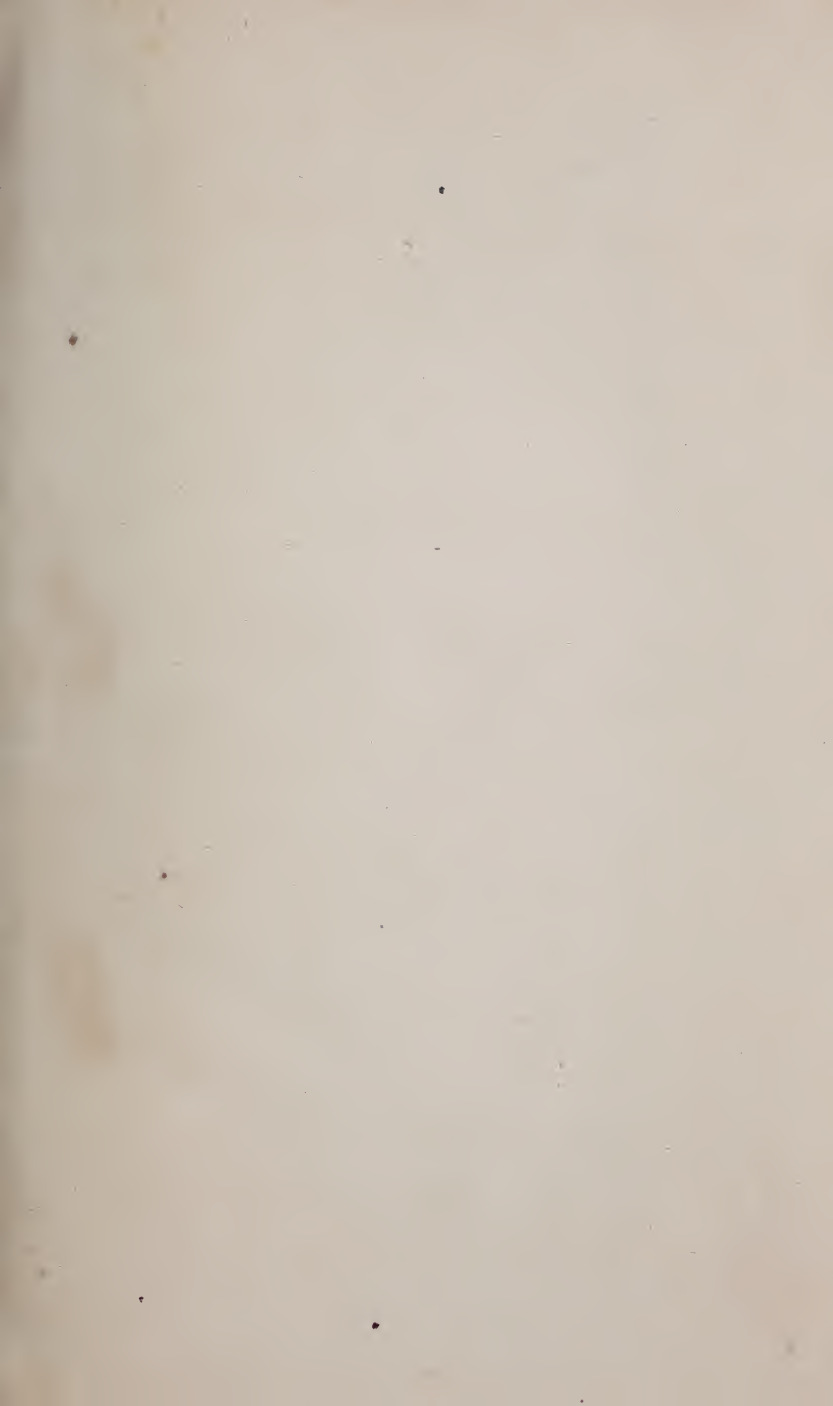
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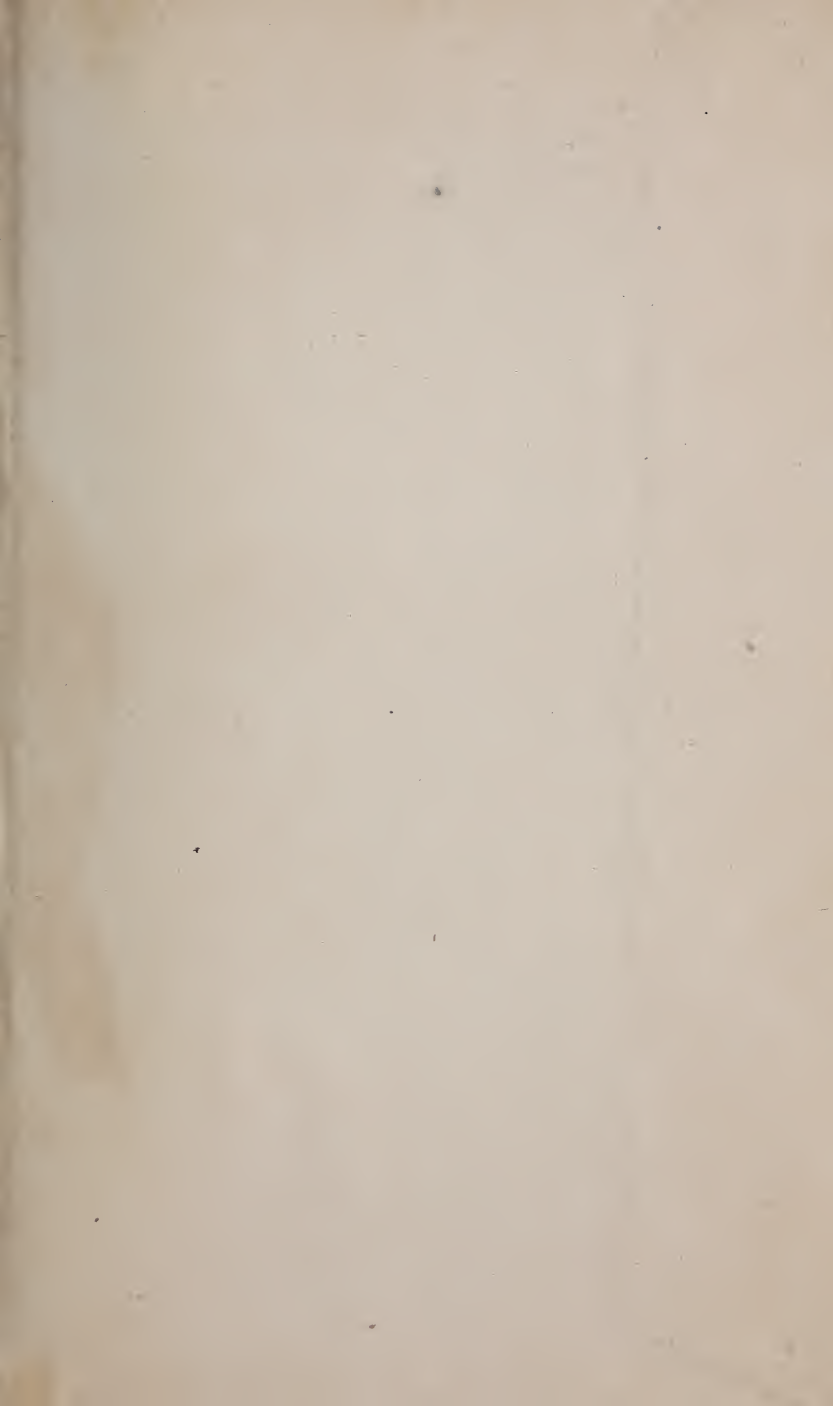
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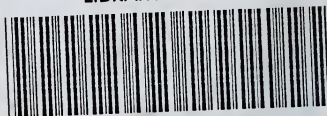






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